



TRACING HISTORY BACKWARDS

STEPHEN KING-HALL
AND
K.C. BOSWELL

BOOK ONE
THE FACTS



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TRACING HISTORY BACKWARDS

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BOOK TWO

SOME PROBLEMS

In the first book the Authors dealt with the facts of the modern world and their counterpart in the past. In the second book they deal with some of the problems arising out of these facts.

Such questions as transport, the problem of the machine, unemployment, the problem of educating citizens for democratic government, are treated from both a contemporary and historical point of view. The book provides a valuable introduction to some of the major issues with which most elementary and secondary children will come into early contact.

As such it is confidently recommended to all teachers who believe that one of the primary functions of the school is to be a training ground for citizenship in the widest sense of the term.

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FOREWORD

HOWEVER much educationists may disagree about the relative value and place of the various subjects in the school curriculum, it is true to say that to-day they are agreed as to the goal of the work done in the Elementary and Secondary Schools. The goal should be to equip the child with the power to think for himself, and to give him some general, not technical, knowledge of the world into which he or she is going to take a part. In an age when the problems confronting each country require such careful handling the necessity of doing all that is possible to achieve this goal becomes more important than ever.

What is to be the rôle of History in realising this goal? Surely it must be to give (amongst other things) some idea of the main lines of development of our own government, both national and local; of the essential features of our economic structure; some knowledge of the procedure of buying and selling; and the development of the Empire. Now, this may sound an ambitious programme, but that may be because of its novelty rather than its difficulty. The experience of the authors of this book, based upon work along these lines not only in School Broadcasting but also during the Children's Hour, and confirmed by a voluminous correspondence from children of all ages, seems to justify their belief that such a programme is both acceptable to, and not beyond the capacities of, children between the ages of thirteen to fourteen.

In particular, the "Tracing History Backwards" course to Schools, now some years old, has invariably had as its object the linking up of present-day problems with the work done in

School History. There can be few among the older generations who will deny that for them History ended at 1815 or 1878 at the very latest. To give a child that impression is to destroy the essential idea of History as a continuous story of development and to conceal the fact that the events of to-day are the History of to-morrow. It is because the authors of this book are so firmly convinced of the desirability of this linking up of School History with present-day problems that they are emboldened to place yet another History book before teachers.

It is to be clearly understood that it does not in any way pretend to be a new or authoritative book on British History. Its very origin precludes such a possibility, since the substance of the book consists of material used in the Broadcast Talks to Schools in "Tracing History Backwards." But the wireless talk is fleeting in character, and often points may be missed or require further elaboration. It is hoped, therefore, that by having the substance in the permanent form of a Reader, teachers and pupils will derive greater benefit therefrom. The intimate language and format of the wireless talk have been retained, but additional material has been incorporated. It is suggested that the best way to use the reader is to take the chapters in pairs, and that they should be read aloud. The reader should form a valuable handbook for the last year at school, and should be used by those who have done some continuous course of British History.

STEPHEN KING-HALL.
K. C. BOSWELL.



CHAPTER 1 (A)

PRESENT-DAY LIFE

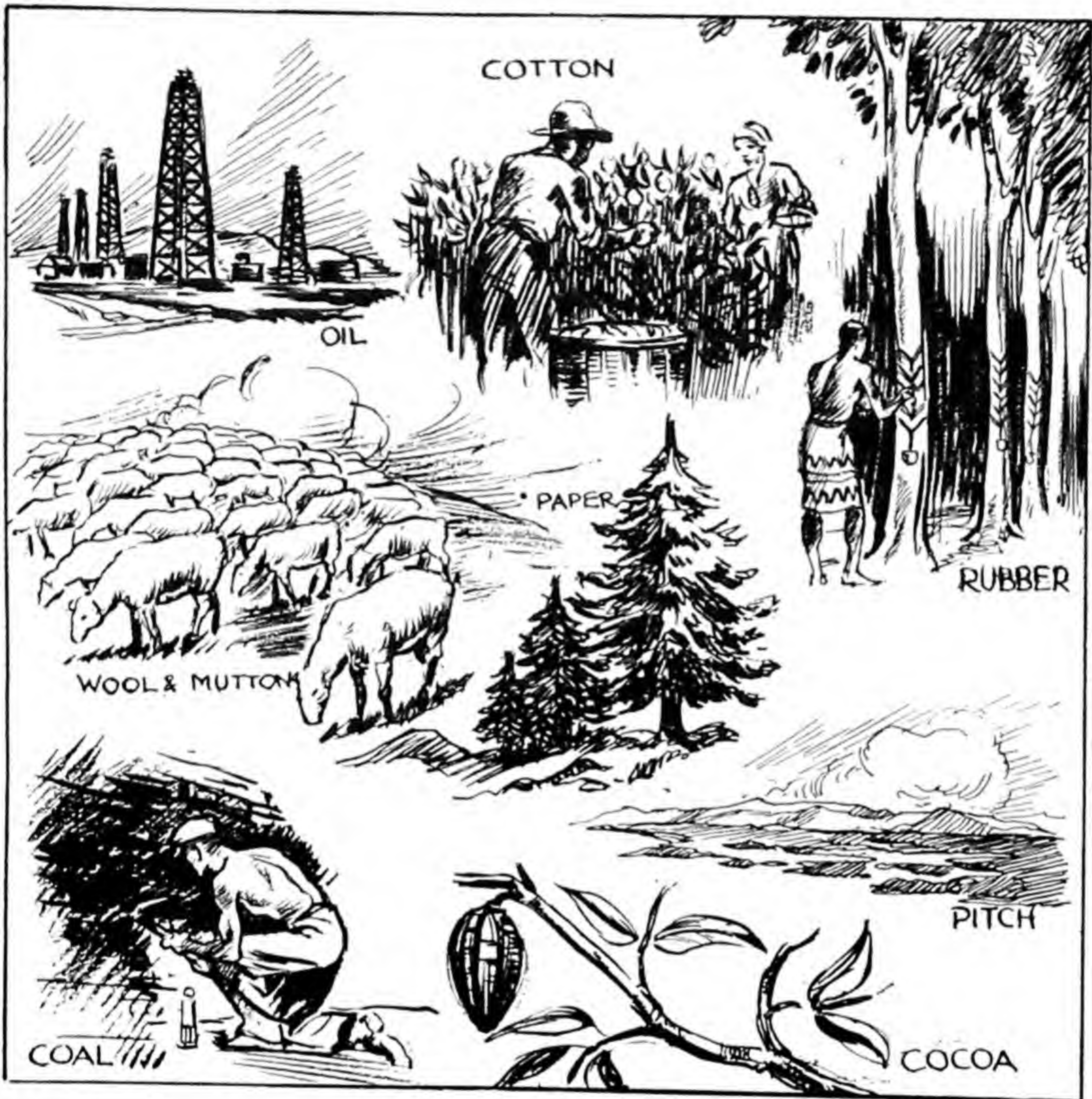
I WONDER if you realise how many different things you need in order to make it possible for you to lead what you would call a comfortable life. Take the question of food. You need meats of different kinds, such as bacon, mutton and beef. It is very unlikely that all the meat you eat is killed in England. Some of it may be, but it is possible that the bacon you eat at breakfast once belonged to a pig in Denmark, that if you had mutton or lamb for dinner last Sunday that this meat came from New Zealand, or if it was beef, that it came from the Argentine. It is rather an odd thought that you are (or may be) kept alive by eating grass which grew in New Zealand or South America, for the sheep or the steer is only a living machine for turning grass into meat. Then you need bread and sugar. The wheat in the bread may be a mixture of wheat grown in England and in Canada. The sugar may come from an English beet field, or from the sugar-canes in Mauritius or the Dutch East Indies. I wonder where the leather on the bottom of your

boots came from—very likely from South Africa. Your boots may once have been running about the Veldt! You need paper upon which to write and this paper was once a tree growing in Northern Europe or Newfoundland. You may use oil in an oil-stove, and that oil probably came from Mexico or Persia. When your mother sews a button on your clothes, she uses cotton which was picked off the cotton plant by a black man in the southern parts of the United States of America, down by the Mississippi river or perhaps it came from Egypt. When your father smokes his cigarette or his pipe the tobacco comes from America or perhaps Rhodesia. Do you like chocolates? The cocoa in them comes from West Africa. Do you walk to school along a tarred road? If you do you are probably walking on something which has come from the island of Trinidad. Or perhaps you go to school in a motor-bus, in which case you are being carried on tyres made of rubber from the Malay States. Perhaps you like going to the cinema? If you do you have seen American films—and some English ones as well, I hope. You like having a bath, and a hot one? You need coal to have a hot bath, and a boiler and pipes to carry the water, and a drain to take the waste water away. In your bath you may use a sponge—it comes from Greece, or at any rate from somewhere in the Mediterranean.

Try this game. Imagine yourself on a desert island, and suppose that you are a magician and can get whatever you want. Now write down a list of all the things you would demand with a wave of your magic wand.

I do not mean that you should ask for an aeroplane, because we have not yet arrived at the state when everyone feels that he simply *must* have an aeroplane, but just write down the necessities. You will be astonished at the length of the list.

Pause here for breath and reflection if necessary.



SOME OF THE EVERYDAY REQUIREMENTS OF PRESENT-DAY LIFE

Did you think of a wireless set in your list? Over 6,000,000 people in this country each have a wireless set, and twenty years ago people had not begun to think of wireless sets. Mr. Boswell may tell you that even rich people not very long ago would have been surprised if you had said "Where is your bathroom?" Forty years ago a tomato was a great novelty on an English dining-table. Not long ago tinned foods were unknown.

What I want you to understand is the fact that life to-day is very complicated, in the sense that people are not happy unless they have a great variety of things. People to-day insist that they *must* have all kinds of things of which their grandparents had never heard.

A baby does not want much. Keep it warm and give it milk and it is happy. A little later on it wants something more than milk in the way of food. It also has to have more clothes, and soon it needs shoes and toys. As it becomes a child and then a grown-up it needs more things. The recent story of civilisation is something like that. It is the story of men wanting more. Not so much more of a few things, but more of everything. They want the wireless; they want a newspaper in the morning and one in the evening. They want circuses, they want dance-halls, dog-tracks, tennis-courts, swimming-baths, libraries, charabancs, golf-courses, football grounds, cricket grounds, motor-cars, motor-bicycles and good roads, underground railways and overground railways, telephones and telegraphs. You see and use all these modern inventions (some of them are not so modern as you think—for the old Romans went in for a comfortable life, with central heating in their houses), and yet you take them for granted. It seems quite natural to you to see motor-cars going about the roads, aeroplanes flying through the sky and to hear a voice coming out of a loud speaker. It may be difficult for you to realise that if, say, your great-grandfather could suddenly come back to life, you would find it very difficult to make him believe he was really alive in the same old world in which he had lived. When you have read what Mr. Boswell has to say about the simple needs of an Englishman a few hundreds of years ago, you will understand how big the changes have been, and perhaps Mr. Boswell will be able to tell you something about what happened to bring about these changes from the simple way of living to the



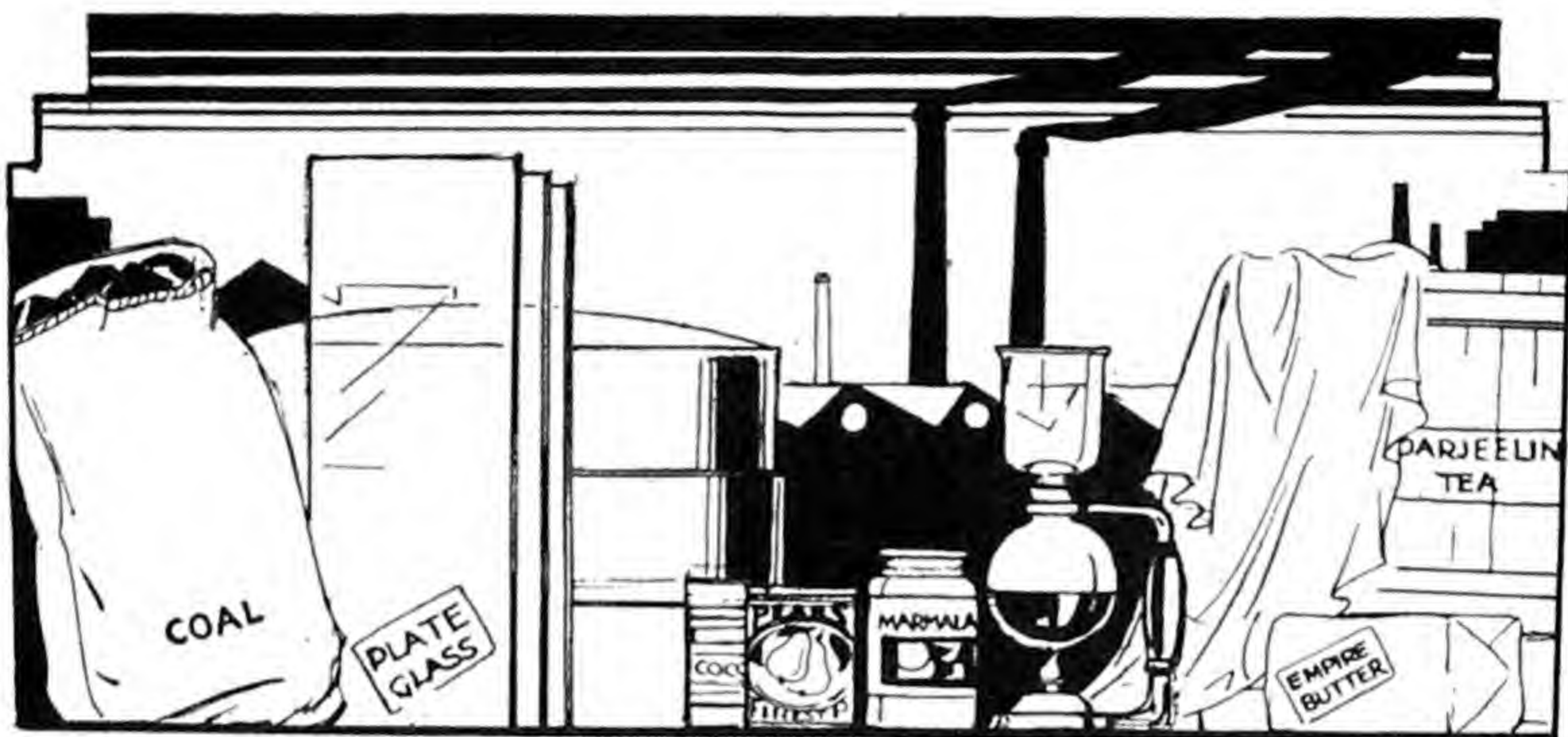
A FEW OF MAN'S INCREASING WANTS

complicated life of to-day. Summing up what I have said, the fact I would like you to remember is that the man of to-day is a man who feels that to be happy he must have the use of a great variety of objects. In my next talk I shall try to give you a picture of how these vast quantities of different objects are produced, for if you turn the matter over in your mind, you will, I think, agree that no one man, however clever, however hard-working he was, could possibly make by his own

efforts all the things which each of us expect to use in our daily life.

QUESTIONS. TALK 1 (A)

1. You are on a desert island where you will have to live for a week. You are naked. You find a magician who says to you: "I will fly to London and spend £10 on shopping for you." What would you order him to bring back?
2. How many different kinds of food did you eat and drink yesterday or to-day?
3. How many different kinds of material can you find in your classroom? (Do not forget your own clothes.) Make a list of these materials.



CHAPTER 1 (B)

LUXURIES BECOME NECESSITIES

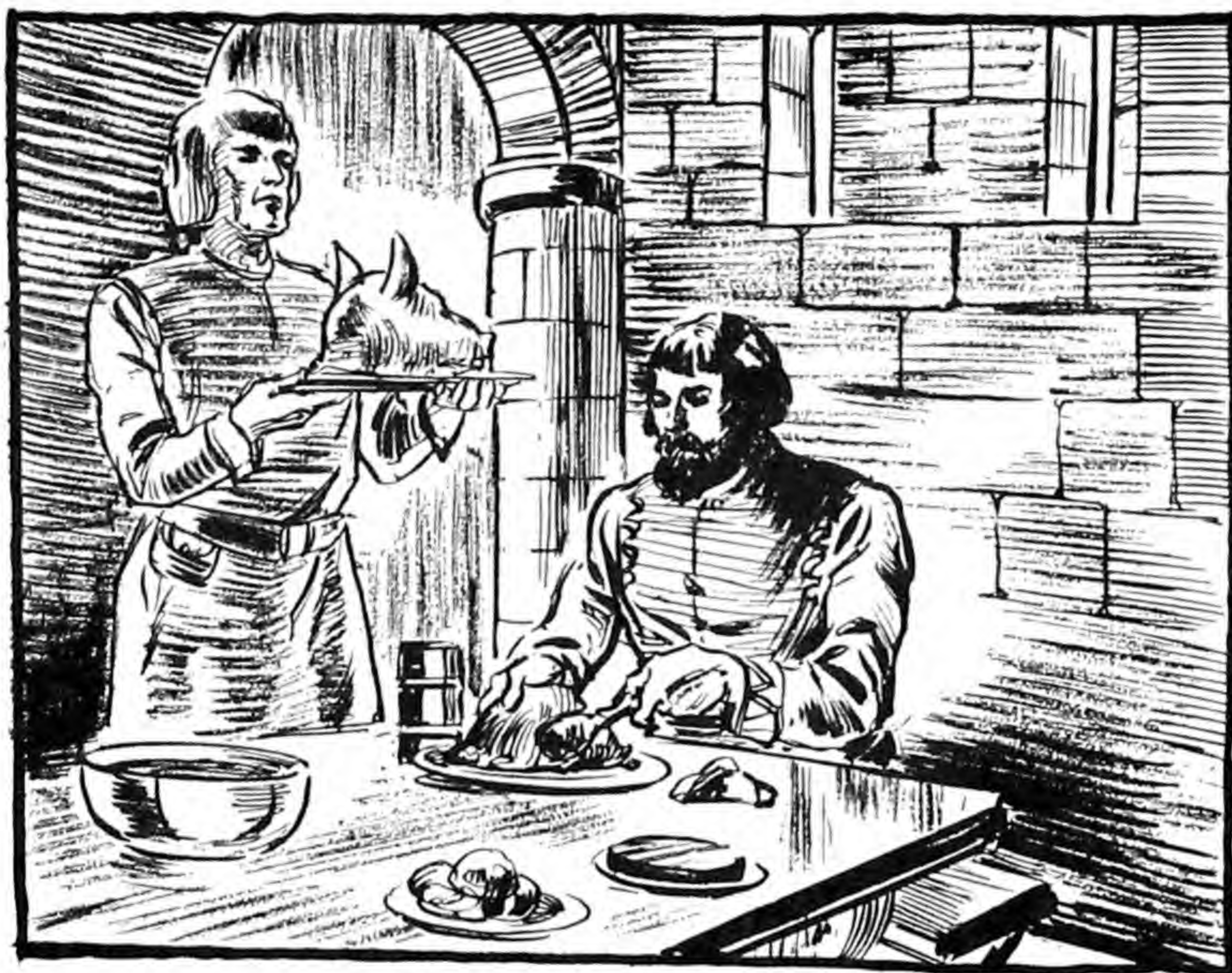
I THINK that you will agree with me that you ought to have obtained two very definite impressions from Commander King-Hall's talk. Firstly, that to-day we have an extraordinary number of wants, many of which we regard as necessities; and secondly, that in satisfying these wants we draw upon the resources and use the services of all kinds of people in every part of the world. You were asked to make out a list of what you regarded as necessities; I hope you made that list out, because although of course I do not know what you have put into it, I am quite sure that when my talk is over, you will see that its title—"Luxuries become Necessities"—is a very true one. Or to put it in another way, that what you consider necessities were either luxuries in the past or could not be obtained at all. To help us to get back into the atmosphere of the past, I am going to create three characters whom I have called Baron Rollo, a

greater baron living in the early fourteenth century, *i.e.* Edward III; Mr. Pepys, who lived from 1633 to 1703 (perhaps some of you know who he is already, and have read parts of his famous Diary, but in case any of you do not know him, he lived in the time of Charles II and held an important post in the Board of Admiralty called Clerk of the Acts); and a Mr. Addleshaw, a Lancashire cotton-worker, to represent the average factory-hand at the end of the nineteenth century.

Shall we imagine then that these three characters have been invited to speak to us from Broadcasting House? It would be fun, wouldn't it? So, as the announcer would say, "I am now handing over the Studio to Baron Rollo."

Baron Rollo

"I hope, Mr. Boswell, that you received my reply to your invitation on that bit of parchment, and I trust you will tell me to-day when you want me again, because I really cannot afford to answer you on parchment each time you want me to come here. Parchment is expensive, and I only use it on very important occasions, and in any case I have to get a scribe from a near-by monastery to write for me. I came here on a horse, but I had to walk a good part of the way, because the roads were in such a dreadful condition; few people look after them, and after heavy rain they become just seas of mud. My wants are really very simple. I have little or no glass in my house because I cannot afford it, and in any case it is not made in panes such as you know to-day, but in little pieces which have to be joined together like the glass you see in the stained-glass windows of cathedrals and churches. In my hall, which is my main living-room, I have no fireplaces nor chimneys, but just a hole in the roof through which the smoke from my wood-fire escapes. It is incredibly smoky and draughty at times as a result. The tables and benches are made of oak grown on my estate and



BARON ROLLO AT DINNER

carved by my henchmen. I wear simple woollen clothes; no such things as plus-fours, flannels, shorts, jumpers, but I have a fine ermine-lined robe which belonged to my father and which I keep for best. I have no pictures on my walls, but two pieces of tapestry, of which I am very proud.

“Now, I expect you would all like to know something of what I eat. Well, here is a very fair sample of what I could provide for you OFF MY OWN ESTATE: beef, pork, mutton, venison, poultry, fish, eggs, bread, milk, cheese, ale, cider, mead. Probably you would not recognise many of these if you could taste them, because my cook spices them so heavily; that is the only way we hide any unpleasantness of taste owing to the meat not being fresh, for we have no cold storage, no artificial foodstuffs, not even

turnips to feed our cattle during the winter months. The cattle therefore are all killed at Michaelmas, except those kept for breeding purposes. (Also I expect you would find it rather a messy business eating with me, as I do not use forks, but fingers.) On the floor of my hall I have no carpets, only rushes. No dustman comes round each week to clear away my refuse, with the result that during the summer the smell in my hall is none too pleasant. When night comes I must go to bed, as I have no candles worth calling such, and my flintlock and tinder are a bit of a nuisance to work. But do not think that I do not enjoy life because of all these shortcomings, for I certainly do."

Now let us see what Mr. Pepys has to say :—

Mr. Pepys

"I hope you liked the paper and ink I used to answer your invitation; they are the same as I used in writing my Diary. That Diary of mine really would give you a better picture of life in my time than anything else, but of course you want about a diary full in a few minutes' talk. I came to Westminster by boat, and thence by coach at a pretty round trot. I am sorry for Baron Rollo; you ought to see the glass in my house, the welcome blaze of the coal-fire, my beautiful mantelpiece and ornamented chimney-stacks. Although I fully appreciate Rollo's list of food (and I certainly could not produce anything like that list from my own property), nevertheless I can add something to it which I get from foreign countries—potatoes, sugar, tea, coffee, marmalade and, greatest comfort of all, my pipe of tobacco. You see, we now trade with the New World, with the Indies and with China and tea is a great luxury with us. As a matter of fact, Mistress Pepys is out to a tea-party at the moment, and I should have been at a coffee-house discussing the news if I had not been brought here. As for



MR. PEPYS QUIETLY SMOKING HIS PIPE

clothes, I have a pretty little entry in my Diary which shows how much interest I take in clothes.

“After dinner came my periwig-maker, and brings me a second periwig, made of my own hair which comes to twenty-one shillings and sixpence, more than the worth of my own hair, so that they both come to four pounds, one shilling and sixpence which he saith will serve me two years, but I fear it. He being gone, I to my office and put on my new purple gown, with gold buttons and loopplace, being a little fearful of taking cold.’

“I was surprised to hear that Rollo had to go to bed at night-

fall, because that is the time when most of our fun begins. Let me tell of one party.

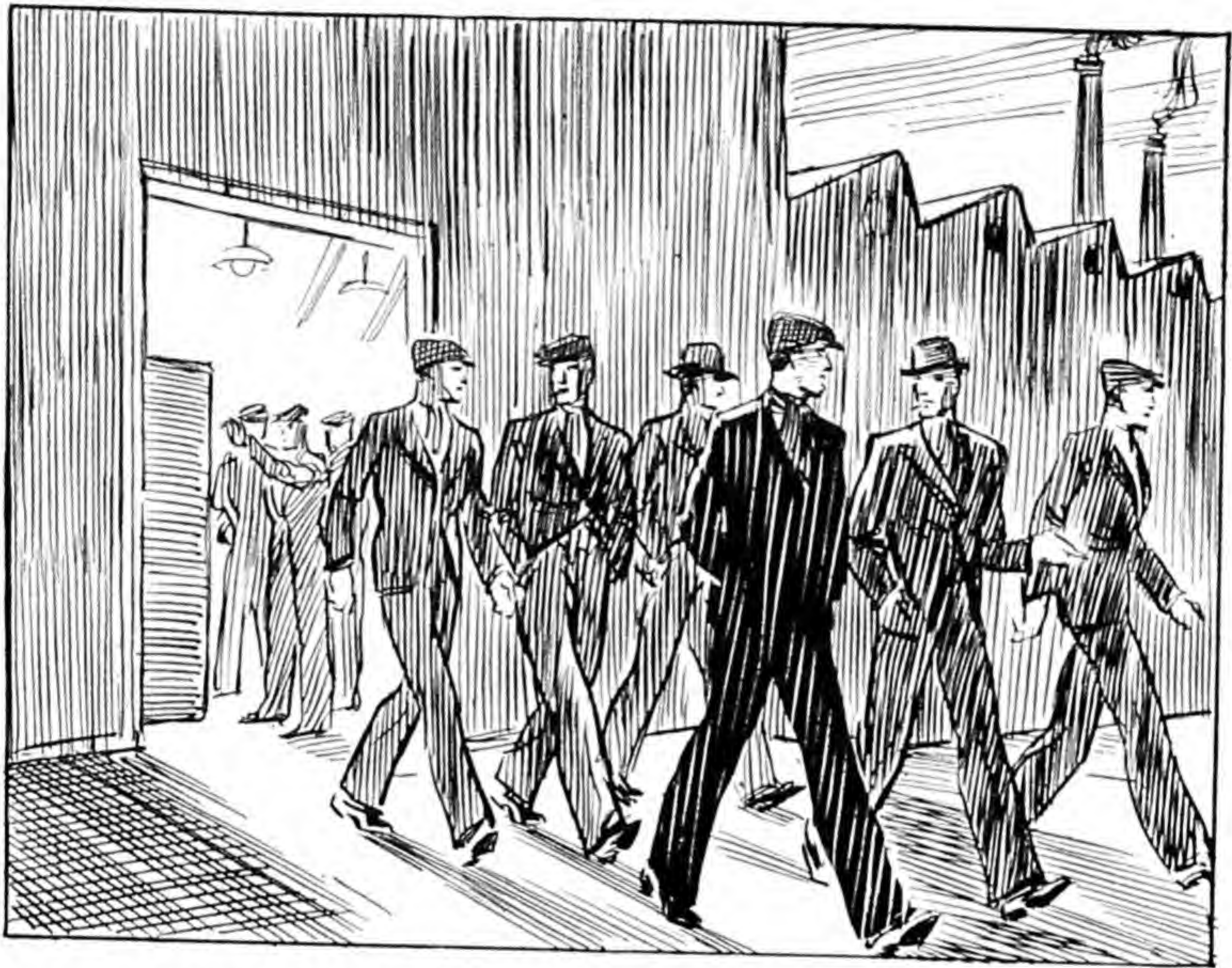
“ ‘We had invited to a venison party Mr. Batelier and his sister Mary, Mrs. Mercer, her daughter Anne, Mr. Le Brun and W. Hewer; and so we supped and very merry. And then about nine o’clock to Mrs. Mercer’s gate, where the boys expected us, and her son had provided abundance of serpents and rockets; and there mighty merry . . . till about twelve at night, flinging our fireworks, and burning one another and the people over the way. And at last our businesses being most spent, we into Mrs. Mercer’s, and there mighty merry, smutting one another with candle grease and soot, till most of us were like devils. . . . Then, we fell into dancing. Thus we spent till three or four in the morning, mighty merry.’ ”

“As for pictures, you ought to see the portraits I have by Van Dyck and Peter Lely. Well, I must away now, as I am due at the Playhouse to see a play by Will Shakespeare called ‘Romeo and Juliet,’ for I was ever a one for going to the play.”

Now here is Mr. Addleshaw :—

Mr. Addleshaw

“I hope I caught the evening post all right last night, and that you received my letter this morning accepting your kind invitation. In any case, I took the precaution of sending a telegram as well to say I should be with you at 2.15 on the 28th September, 1933. I had a good journey by train from Manchester, which took just over four hours. I took a horse omnibus from Euston, although I could have come by steam-underground, but I preferred to stay in the fresh air. Well, I was interested to hear what Rollo and Mr. Pepys had to say, because most of the things on which they seemed to set such store I regard as necessities. In fact, I could go on for a very long time telling you of all the wonderful things there are at



CLOCKING-OUT WHEN THE DAY'S WORK IS DONE

my disposal which I regard as necessary for my standard of living, and which our method of producing by machines gives me cheaply. I should think it a very peculiar thing if I had not got glass, coal fires, tea, potatoes, and artificial light and matches. I could have a gas fire and cooker if I wanted. Water is laid on in my house which comes from many miles away in the Lake District; a dustman calls every week to take my refuse away, and the drainage is not at all bad since the Government passed laws to see that there was a proper drainage system in houses. With regard to food, I grow none of it except a few vegetables, but my wife can always get fresh vegetables, fish and fruit from the market, and although the meat comes from foreign countries or from the Empire it is very difficult to tell

it from fresh home-killed meat. Every day I am told what has been happening in the world by means of a newspaper costing a penny, which receives its news by cable or telephone, and I have any amount of cheap literature. I ride to and fro from my work on a tram-car, and on Bank Holidays we can get cheap trips to the seaside. If we want, we can go to a music hall on a Saturday night. So you see that I, as a working man, can satisfy wants which would have been undreamt of by both Baron Rollo and Mr. Pepys."

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. TO BE ANSWERED BY THOSE WHO LIVE IN VILLAGES AND SMALL TOWNS.
Suppose that you were suddenly cut off from all outside sources of supply; write down how many of the things in the list you made during the last talk which could be produced in your own village or town.
2. TO BE ANSWERED BY THOSE WHO LIVE IN BIG AND VERY BIG TOWNS.
How many of the things in your list come from outside your town, and from where do they come?
3. What made you call certain things necessities instead of luxuries? Do you think Mr. Pepys would have agreed with your list?



CHAPTER 2 (A)

PRESENT-DAY WORK

IN my first talk I told you that one of the facts of modern life which I thought important because it was one of the facts which has made life to-day different from life in the past—at any rate during the past thousand years—was that people to-day have a great many demands and needs which they seek to satisfy. When I used the word “past” I was thinking of about the last thousand years or so, and I did so because if you go back two thousand years to the Romans you will find that those people had a good many needs and demands which they managed to satisfy; not so many as we have, but many more than were felt by, say, an Englishman of the year 1500. However, I am now trespassing in Mr. Boswell’s field, so I had better hurry back to our own times.

I ended my last talk by pointing out to you that it was quite impossible for any one person to make for himself, or collect for himself, all the great number of things he needed in his

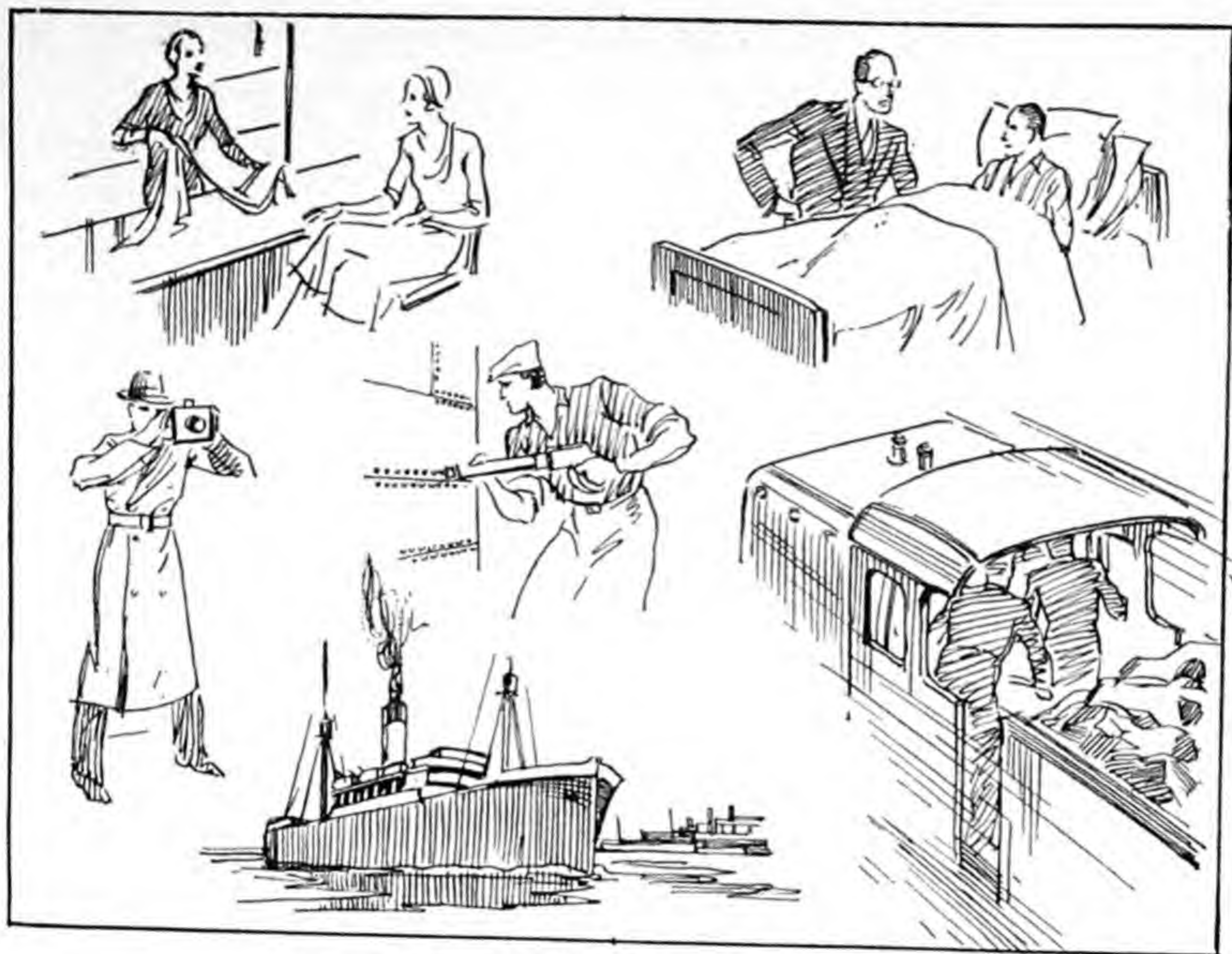
daily life. The result of this fact has been that the work of men has become divided into different occupations. Each man spends all his time doing one job and then, in a manner which I shall deal with in my next talk, he exchanges what he has made for some of the things he needs which other men have made.

Every ten years the number of persons in the nation are counted—this is called the Census. When this great numbering of the people takes place, steps are also taken to find out what kind of a job each person is doing. From this Census we can find out what kind of a nation we are from the point of view of our jobs. Two men, called Carr-Saunders and Jones, have written a very interesting book called “Social Structure of England and Wales,” and it is from this book that I obtained most of the facts I am now going to give you. I must explain to you that these facts come from the Census of ten years ago; they have not finished working out the last one yet. But experts tell me the difference will not be very great.

Out of every hundred people in this country who are in employment, a little over half, fifty-three of them, as a matter of fact, are making and producing things. They are growing foodstuffs such as wheat, cattle, potatoes, milk, or they are fishing in the sea round our coasts, or they are digging out coal and iron-ore from holes in the earth, or they are working in factories making things out of lumps of iron, steel, copper and wood. Some of the fifty-three are working in factories making cloth out of cotton and wool; others are making these cloths into clothes. Yet others of the fifty-three are building houses, making roads, making toys, pottery, tools, books, newspapers, films, furniture, school desks, pens, paper, and so on.

Thirteen out of the forty-seven people left over out of each hundred are busily engaged in buying and selling goods and in work in connection with the money side of exchanging goods.

Seven out of each hundred have the job of carrying goods



A FEW OF MAN'S MANY OCCUPATIONS

backwards and forwards, and also carrying messages and people about the land. Railway workers and telephone operators belong to this group.

Twelve out of each hundred are employed in waiting upon other people, or in preparing food and drink. Men and women who work in hotels belong to this group.

Six out of every hundred are government officials. Three out of every hundred are in the professions, by which I mean they are people like doctors, clergymen, lawyers, nurses or teachers. Two out of every hundred are in the army, navy or air force. It is the job of these two men to defend the other ninety-eight.

One man in a hundred works in gas, water and electricity concerns, and one man in a hundred has the job of amusing the

other ninety-nine. This one man is the actor, the professional footballer, or the cinema star.

I think it might be interesting to make a list of those figures which show how the working population of this country was divided amongst the different kind of jobs when the Census of 1921 was taken, so I will give you first the jobs and then the figures. The figure will be the number of persons in each hundred who work at that job.

MAKING AND MINING THINGS	53
BUYING AND SELLING	13
FETCHING AND CARRYING	7
PERSONAL SERVICES	12
GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS	6
PROFESSIONS	3
FIGHTING SERVICES	2
GAS, WATER, ELECTRICITY	1
AMUSEMENTS	1
ODDS AND ENDS	2
	<hr/>
	100

Now what would you like to be when school days are over?

Pause for breath and reflection if necessary.

Now have a look at the diagram on page 25.

I told you that fifty-three out of every hundred people were engaged in making and mining things. Now I want to go into this a little closer. Of these fifty-three people about thirteen work in factories where things made of metal are manufactured. Seven work in coal mines and quarries, seven work in textile factories and artificial silk factories and six grow food as farmers.

Farming is fourth on the list of industries which employ over

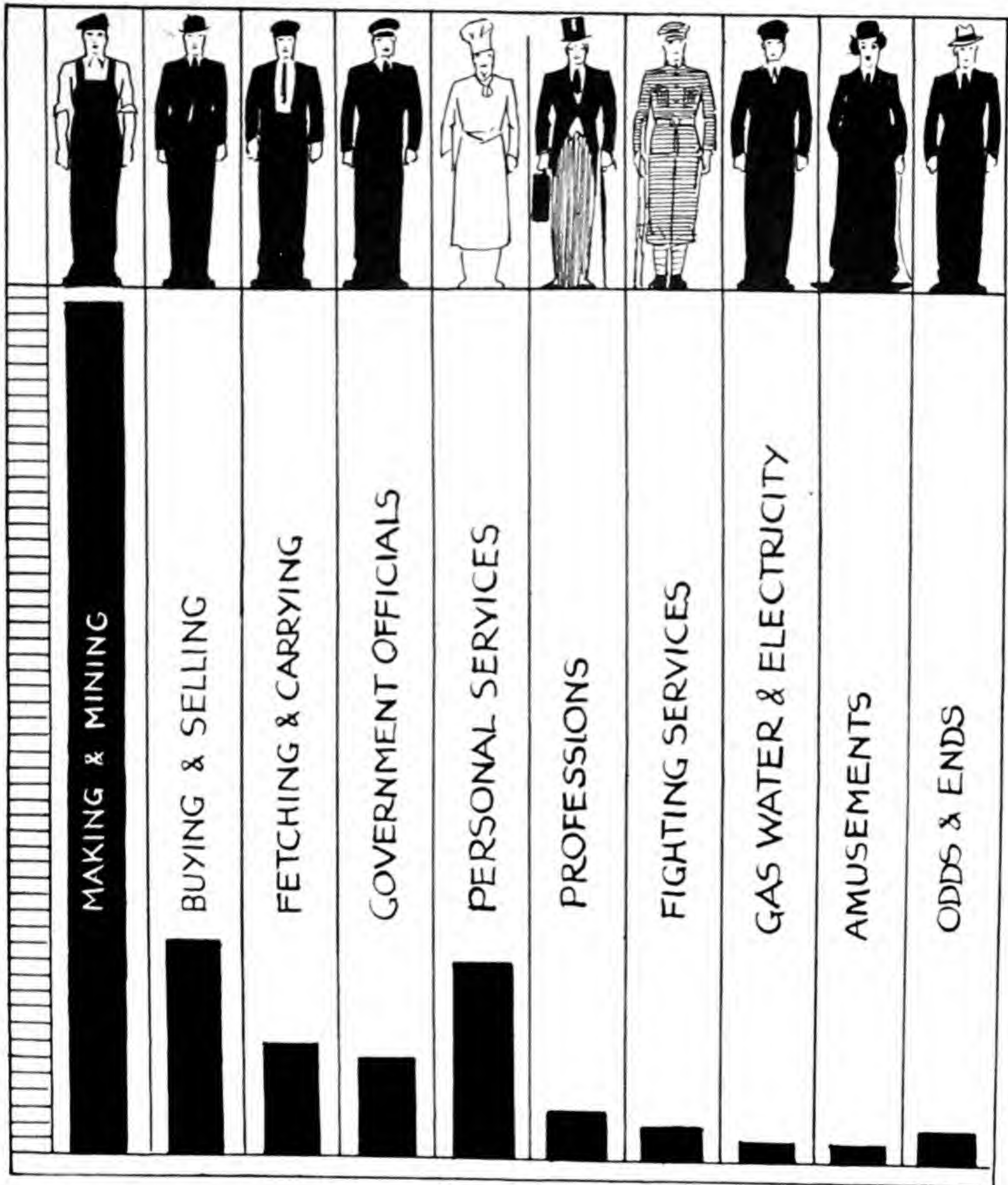


DIAGRAM OF PERSONS IN EACH HUNDRED OF POPULATION; SHOWING TYPES OF WORK

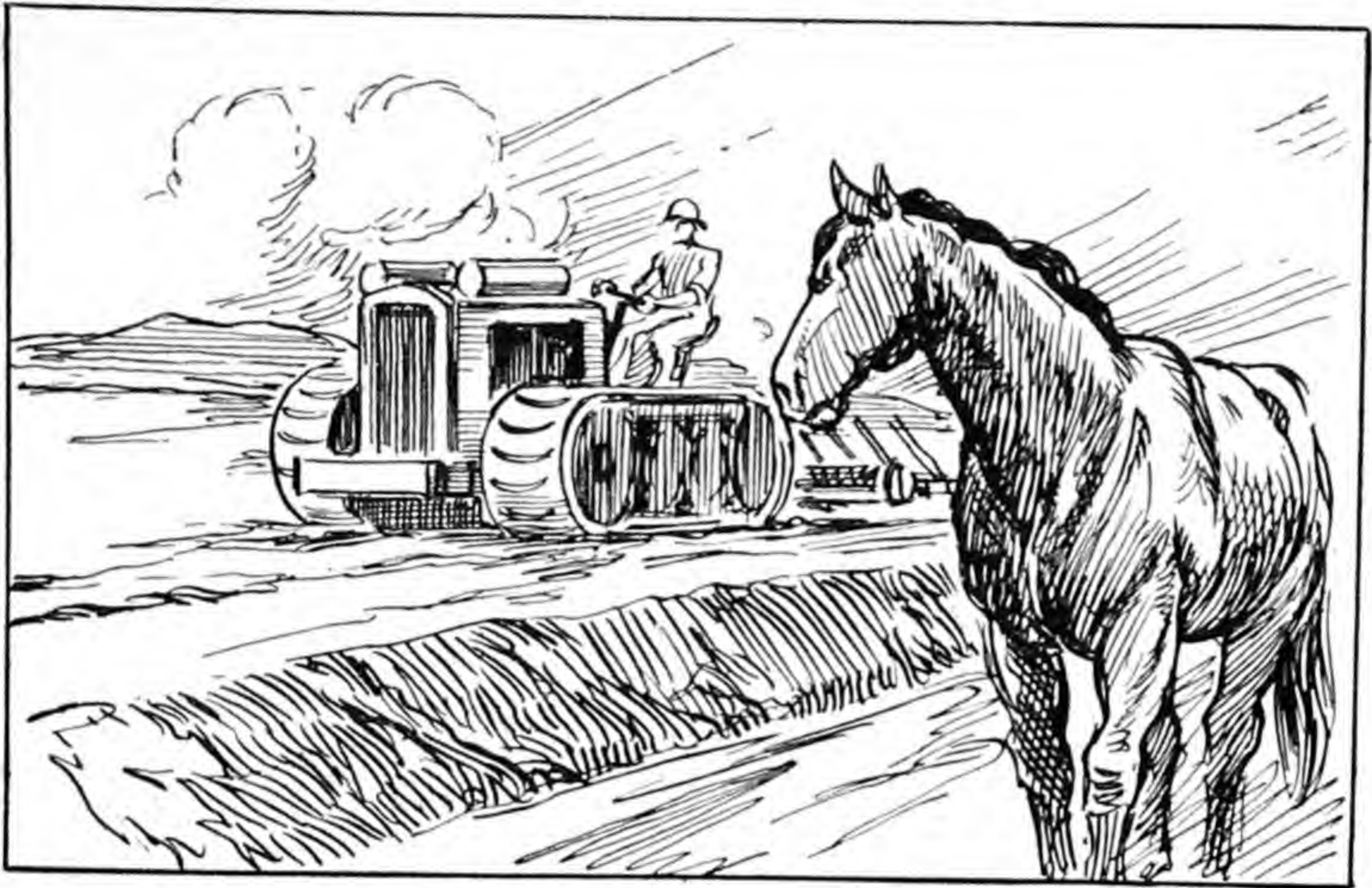
a million people. Eighty years ago, one in four of every working man was working on the land; now it is about one in ten.

Because few of our people work on the land, few of our people live in the country. We are a nation of town-dwellers.

Some people think that it is not good for a nation to have so many of its people living in towns, and there have been many attempts to get more people back to the land. But people will not, and indeed cannot, live and work in the country unless they can earn their living by so doing. In the past we have bought most of our food from abroad because it was cheaper to do this than to grow it at home.

Now I want to say a few words about the way in which the men of the whole world are divided up amongst jobs. There are about 2000 million people in the world, and, so far as we know—and we can only make rough guesses in these matters—about 1300 million of them, or two-thirds of the world's population, are workers on the land. Factory-workers and traders amount to about 400 million, and all the other jobs, such as transport, mining, services and so on, are done by the remaining 500 million. The point to remember about these figures is that, roughly speaking, two out of every three of the world's inhabitants are farmers of some kind or another. The growing of food and of things like cotton and wool and leather for clothing are the most important jobs in the world if you judge importance by the number of people engaged on the job.

Now will you please imagine that I have arrived outside your school or home in an aeroplane, and that you all get into my 'plane and up we go. We go up and up and up until we can look down over the whole of England and Scotland and Wales, and this is what we see. We see most of the whole nation living in towns (some like London, Glasgow, Liverpool, and Manchester are very large) and working at making things. We notice that each person is doing one job. One man or woman is teaching, another is selling in a shop, another man is driving a railway engine (Look! There's a train going over the Forth Bridge!), another is making a road. We see houses being built, we see doctors attending the sick, we see men



A HORSE LOOKS AT A MODERN MOTOR TRACTOR

collecting news for papers, other men printing the papers, boys selling the papers. We see ships coming towards our ports (perhaps we are over the London Docks) and being unloaded at quays, we see policemen looking after the traffic. It looks like an ant-heap in which the ants are human beings and each ant is making one thing or carrying out one service. Yet, as I told you in my last talk, each ant—that is to say, each human being—needs and uses many things.

Here is a problem. On the one hand we have Mr. A, Mrs. B, and Mr. C and Master D, who each need and use many things and services, and yet Mr. A, Mrs. B, and Mr. C and Master D each spend their time doing or making one thing. How does Mrs. B get hold of all the things she needs? The answer is that she goes to the people who make or do all the things she needs and says to them: "Look here! I am working all day helping to make wireless sets. I and my friends who make wireless sets will exchange these sets for bread, clothes, houses, milk,

vegetables, rides in buses, newspapers, and all the things you other people make, grow or do. We need what you make, and you need wireless sets. Shall we arrange an exchange?" That is trade, and the facts of present-day trade are what I shall deal with in my next talk. Until then, however, here are a few interesting facts connected with work of to-day.

Much of the work of to-day is done by machinery. The use of machinery is called "mechanisation." Machinery was first used to a large extent about a hundred to a hundred and thirty years ago, and this change which started in Great Britain is, as you have perhaps been told, called "The Industrial Revolution." I should like to call it the *first* Industrial Revolution, because I believe that at the present time we are having a *second* Industrial Revolution.

We are having, as it were, a second helping of machinery. One of the jobs which was left over from the Industrial Revolution was the use of machinery in farming. Nowadays machines are used more and more on farms.

The question of employment is partly mixed up with this business of using machinery, because machinery "saves labour." At the present time, in some parts of the world, people are being forbidden to use new machinery because to do so would throw people out of work. Perhaps this is not the right way in which to deal with unemployment, for if we destroyed all the machinery in the world there might be no unemployment once the confusion had been overcome, but there would be great discomfort and a great many deaths from starvation.

The use of machinery makes it possible for all of us to have more spare time, or leisure. Leisure does not mean idleness: it means time in which to spend the wealth we have earned in our working time. It is probably harder to spend your wealth properly than it is to earn it. If you wish to know how to use your leisure—and I hope you will have much leisure in your

lives—then you must be educated. School is the place where you learn—or should learn—how to become educated, as well as learning how to earn your living. I do not suppose you have understood everything I have just said. I did not mean you to. I only meant to make you say: “Now, what did he mean by that? I must ask about this leisure business.”

Are you a bit puzzled? I hope so. I want to puzzle you sometimes! To make you think! To make you stop on your way home—but do not get knocked down by a motor—and say to yourself “Now, what *did* he mean by that!”

Think! Think! Think!—that’s what your brain is for.
Make! Make! Make!—that’s what your hands are for.
Look! Look! Look!—that’s what your eyes are for.
Listen! Listen! Listen!—that’s what your ears are for.

QUESTIONS. TALK 2 (A)

1. Architects, plumbers . . . here are two kinds of work-people who have helped in the actual building of your school. Think of some other kinds.
2. What is the population of your town or village, of Great Britain, of the world?
3. Make a list of ten articles which could be entirely produced and “made in Great Britain.”
4. Find out whether your family’s newspaper has anything to say about trade unions. (Try this for at least one week.)
5. A pound of tea reaches your table from India. Make a list of the different people through whose hands it has passed.





CHAPTER 2 (B)

FROM HAND TO MACHINE PRODUCTION

I AM now going to deal with the main stages in the growth of industry to the form in which Commander King-Hall described it to you in his last talk, and so, once again, we must just recall for a moment what his main points were. I think you will agree that he emphasised three things : firstly, how to-day in industry each person only performs one very small part of a complete job, *i.e.* specialisation ; secondly, how many and various are the jobs of all the people who help in producing, distributing and selling the finished article ; thirdly, that in producing things the general method is for great numbers of people to be gathered together in places which we call factories. These people are for the most part called wage-earners. I want to draw your attention to one particular feature of these wage-earners. They sell their labour or skill only. In most cases they do not provide any of the money, *i.e.* capital, to start the factory, nor do they own the machines which they look after, nor do they own nor have any say as to where the finished article is to be sold. This somewhat lengthy introduction is necessary because it

is only in this way that I can bring out for you the differences between the present and the past methods of producing "manufactures."

Further, I want you to remember that we are talking not of growing things—that is, agriculture—but of making things. Now, look up the meaning of the word "manufactures" in a good dictionary; you will see that although we apply that word to-day to the articles produced in factories, the word really applies more accurately to articles produced before the age of factories, *i.e.* when they were made by hand.

Lastly, it is very important for you to realise that in pointing out these main stages of growth to you it is impossible to say that each one of the stages began and ended on a fixed day or year. Each stage has overlapped the other, so much so that even in Europe to-day there are still places where the Household System of production exists, or where it has only recently disappeared. Remember, then, you cannot put these stages of which I am going to speak into water-tight compartments: in actual fact they shade off into one another.

Well, I am now going to ask Baron Rollo to say something about the Guild System as he knew it in his day.

Baron Rollo

"I want to tell you something about the Guild System of producing things: in particular woollen cloths, because, thanks to the monks who grow the wool, and the skill of the Flemish weavers brought into this country by my Lord the King Edward III, this country of ours is gradually becoming famous not only for its wool, but also for its cloths. There are three features of this system which I want to get into your minds. Firstly, the Weavers' Guilds exist in the towns, and nobody except members of the Guild are allowed to trade in the town (I have a town on my estate). Secondly, the Guild lays down very clearly how the goods are to be made, and the

price at which they are to be sold (that is to say, there was no competition or price-cutting). The Guild was what you would call an urban organisation, manufacturing for a local market, hence the desire to prevent outsiders from coming into your preserves. The third point—and this is the one to which I wish you to pay particular attention—is this. The weaver bought the wool himself, out of which he made the cloth, he owned the instruments on which he worked, and he owned the finished cloth, which he sold as best he could within the conditions laid down by his Guild. He worked in his own home, and was to all intents and purposes his own master. Here, then, you see a system which is admirably suited for a local market. While the arrangements of the Guild itself are elaborate, the weaver himself performs many operations, which later on were divided among other people. The wool trade is very important for us, so much so that the Lord Chancellor sits on a Woolsack when with the King in Council, so that the source of so much of the country's wealth may be seen by all present. The King obtains a lot of his money from the taxes he levies on the sacks of wool going out of the country; and so heavy are these that we now call them *Mâletots*—evil taxes."

Mr. Pepys

"Well—egad—things have changed very considerably in my time from what they were in Baron Rollo's. First of all, we are making cloth for a much bigger market than the Guilds did. We send cloth to the Mediterranean countries, to the new-found colonies in North America, to Northern Europe, and, of course, throughout our own island. We make our cloth by what is known as the Domestic System. You see, the restrictions of Baron Rollo's Guild System made it impossible for the weavers to satisfy the increased demand for cloth, and so we no longer have Guilds regulating the processes of industry.

Let me try to bring out the main points of our present arrangements. First of all, the cloth is now being made in the cottages of country folk all over the country, but more particularly in East Anglia, the West Country and Yorkshire. I am going to describe the West Country arrangements. The wool, out of which these folk are making the cloth, was not bought by them as in Rollo's time, but by a gentleman called a clothier, who supplies the money, *i.e.* capital, to buy the wool, which he distributes by pack-horse to the various cottagers. There have been some great names among these clothiers—Jack of Newbury (Henry VIII)—Peter Blundell (in Elizabeth's reign), while I am told that at the present time 'it is no extraordinary thing to have clothiers in the West Country worth from £10,000 to £40,000.'

"The cottager owns the instruments which he uses to make the cloth, but not the finished cloth. He is really a wage-earner paid by the piece. The hours these cottagers work are long, and the cottages in many cases are very unhealthy and badly lit. Now, the main differences between mine and Rollo's system are as follows: (1) In my time the weaver is becoming a wage-earner working for an outside employer instead of for himself; (2) my weaver does not own the finished article; (3) the process of cloth-making has been divided up into all sorts of different ones. My friend Daniel Defoe puts it very well when he says: 'Clothes must be cheaper made when one cards, another spins, another weaves, another draws, another dresses, another presses and packs, than when all the operations above-mentioned were clumsily performed by the same hand.'

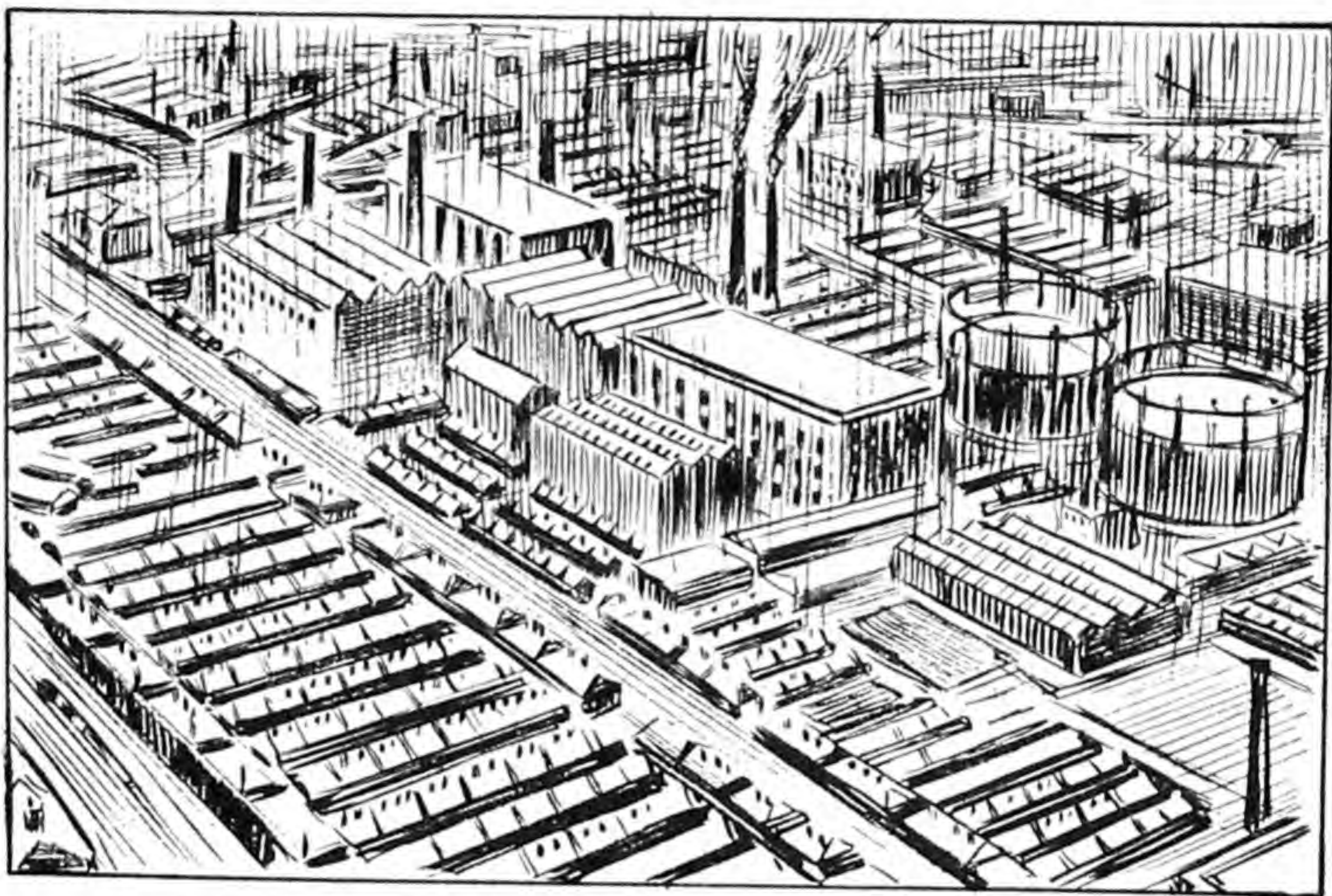
"Just one word more: the finished cloth is taken by the clothier from the cottager to be sold at one of the great Cloth Halls which are to be found in our towns—Blackwell Hall in London, the Cloth Halls in Leeds, Bristol and Southampton. So great and important is this industry that the cloth exported represents two-thirds of our total exports."



WEAVING IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Mr. Addleshaw

“In one way what Mr. Pepys has been describing resembles to some extent the system with which I am familiar—that is, that the worker is a wage-earner working for someone else. But there the similarity ends. Now, the system under which I work is a very complicated one, and I am only a very small cog in it. Although the woollen industry is still very important in our national life, my own industry has brought great prosperity not only to Lancashire, but also to Great Britain. I do not expect, Mr. Pepys, that you would recognise Lancashire if you saw it to-day. Manchester and Liverpool are two of the largest cities in the country, and all over the county are factory towns. Now, how am I to explain how all this has come about? Well, you see, we send our cotton goods all over the world: to India, China, Africa, South America. There is no one to equal us in this line. But to satisfy all this demand machines



FACTORIES IN A MANUFACTURING TOWN OF TO-DAY

have been invented which are capable of doing the work quicker than by hand. We, however, have to go to the machines, which are too big and expensive for us to buy, and which have to be gathered together in one building called a factory. As our employer did not want us far away from the factory, our houses were all built round the factory in long rows. Now, Mr. Pepys, the money to run this factory and to buy the raw cotton and machines has been provided either by private persons or out of the savings of the general public, collected together in what is known as a Joint Stock Company. You had these in your time, Mr. Pepys, for the East India Company was one. Now, I expect you wonder whether I should prefer to work at a machine in a factory or at a machine in my own home. Well, it is different to-day; the noise and the monotony are the two things which strike me most, but I do have regular hours, and since the Government has drawn up regulations to be enforced

in the factory, things have much improved. I do feel, however, very much a cog in the machine, for I have very little say in the running of the factory, and all I have to sell is my skill as a labourer. I do not own any of the cotton goods which I make; as a matter of fact, I only do one part of the finished cotton goods, for my industry is sub-divided into all sorts of processes—I do not know half of them by name myself. If there is a bad cotton crop in America or famine in India or China, I know I am affected, because I go on short time. It is all a very complicated business, but I am told it is the only way by which the demand for cotton goods can be met, and can be met cheaply. In fact, by this system we are able to produce so many kinds of cotton goods that we persuade people by advertising to buy things they may not sometimes want to buy. In other words, supply is now beginning to create demand instead of the other way round.”

Well, now, you see the main stages: household for the household; the Guild System for a local market; the Domestic System for a growing overseas market, and the modern Factory System for a world market. And you see, too, how the position of the worker has changed in each case. In my next talk I am going to tell you how Great Britain became a manufacturing rather than an agricultural country, for although I have been talking about producing things in Rollo's and Pepys' time, the main occupation of the country was agricultural, and was to remain so until the middle of the nineteenth century.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Which would you prefer to be—an apprentice working for a master craftsman in the Middle Ages or a learner in a factory to-day?
2. Find out why the following materials are so called: cambric, lisle, damask, calico, linen.
3. Why do you think the cotton industry found a home in Lancashire; the woollen industry in Yorkshire; the steel industry in Sheffield?



CHAPTER 3 (A)

TRADE OF TO-DAY

IN my first talk I told you that the man of to-day needs the use of many different things for his comfort. He is not ready, willingly, to live a simple life. In my second talk I pointed out that if a man needed a thousand different things he certainly could not make them himself, and for this reason each man spent all his time making, or doing, one kind of thing, and exchanged most of this one thing for some of all the other things. This exchanging is called trade.

The word trade may suggest to you another word—the word “market.” A market is a place at which traders display the goods they wish to exchange for other goods. Once upon a time, as Mr. Boswell will tell you later, “all the little pigs and other things went to market,” but nowadays, although there are still plenty of old-fashioned markets, most of the exchanging of goods takes place in a different way.

Let us suppose you were suddenly dropped in this country from an aeroplane—with a parachute on your back, of course,

or else you would come down with too much of a bump. You would at once need various things such as food and somewhere to live.

There would be two ways in which you could get these things : either you might hope that someone would give them to you, or you might say "I will exchange something I have got for some food and a bed."

Suppose you preferred not to live on someone's charity. What could you exchange? Perhaps you can cook or sew or dig or do something which other people find useful. How would you let people know that you were a good cook, and would willingly work in a kitchen in exchange for a bed? Of course if you could use broadcasting, the matter would be simple. But in England, unlike America, advertising is not allowed on the wireless. Therefore the best thing you could do would be to walk to the nearest large town and go into a newspaper office and persuade them to let you put an advertisement into the paper. In this way you would be sure that next morning hundreds of people could read that you were willing to be a cook. If you open a newspaper and look at the advertisements, you are looking at one of the market-places of the modern world. This tremendous business of exchanging things, of bringing buyers and sellers together, can be considered from two points of view.

Our Home Trade and our Foreign Trade.—The two trades are closely connected together, but I am going to talk about foreign trade first for several reasons, one of which is that we are one of the great foreign-trading countries of the world, and another is because we are in a peculiar position in this country insomuch as without our foreign trade it is very unlikely that 40,000,000 people could live in these islands at anything like our present standard of comfort.

One of the great difficulties facing any government is that,

owing to world troubles, trade between nations has been steadily getting less during the last few years. In ordinary times we export, or send abroad, great quantities of goods, and get back in exchange various things we need, but either cannot grow or make in this country, or it may be that the foreigner can grow or make them cheaper than we can.

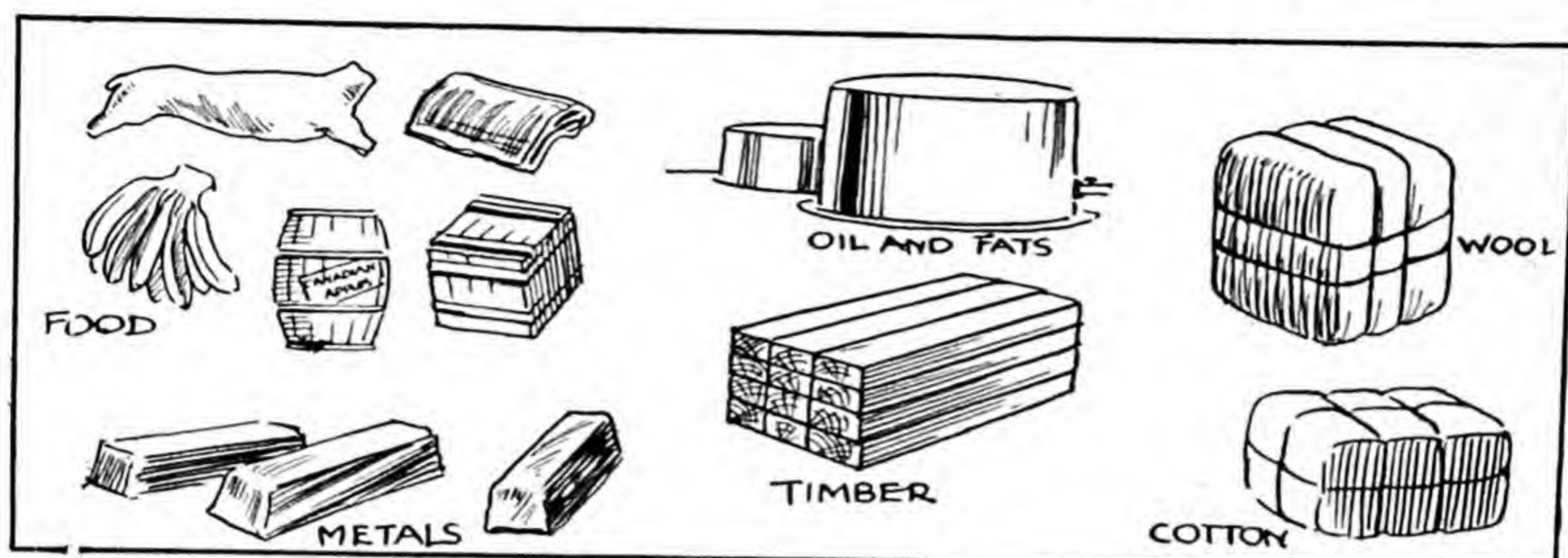
Let me give you some examples : Let us take first of all the things we send abroad to foreign countries. About half the value of our exports is made up of cotton goods, of which we sell abroad about £63,000,000* worth; woollen goods, £24,000 000* worth; iron and steel goods, £28,000,000* worth; machinery, £30,000,000* worth; coal, £32,000 000* worth.

Coal, Cotton Goods, Woollen Goods, Machinery and Things made of Iron and Steel.—These five sorts of goods, when valued, amount to about one half of the value of everything we send abroad, and the total value of everything we sent abroad in 1932 was about £365 million. You can remember that figure by remembering that each day of the year we sell £1 million worth of goods to foreign countries.

Now where do these goods go to? Some of them go to every part of the world, but certain countries are our more important customers. France, the United States of America, Germany and Holland are the foreign countries to whom we send most. India, the Irish Free State, Australia, South Africa, Canada and New Zealand are the most important of our *British* customers. It may surprise you to hear that in 1932 we sent nearly £26 million worth of goods to the Irish Free State, and only £15 million to the U.S.A., whilst India was easily our biggest customer. She bought £34 million in 1932.

What do we get in return for sending abroad these millions of pounds worth of goods?

* 1932 figures.



A FEW OF BRITAIN'S IMPORTS

Our most important imports are :

- (1) *Food*—particularly meat and wheat, bacon, butter, eggs, fruit, sugar, tea and tobacco (if you can call that food).
- (2) *Oil and Fats*. (3) *Wool*. (4) *Cotton*. (5) *Timber*.
- (6) *Metals*—such as copper, lead and tin.

The total value in 1932 of the goods we brought into the country was about £703 million, and we brought most of these from the United States of America, Argentina, Denmark, Germany, Holland, Russia, France and the Dominions, including India.

Now, if you are very sharp indeed, you may have noticed a rather odd fact, and that is the fact that we British seem to be able to do a very clever thing. I told you that the value of what we sent abroad to the foreigner and to other parts of the Empire in 1932 was about £365 million, and yet I also told you that the value of the goods we received in exchange was about £703 million. In other words, we seem to have done a pretty good exchange, because for every £1 worth of goods we sent abroad, we seem to have been sent nearly £2 worth of goods. Why is this? Are our customers abroad very generous, very silly, or what? I mean, one would have expected to find that we should

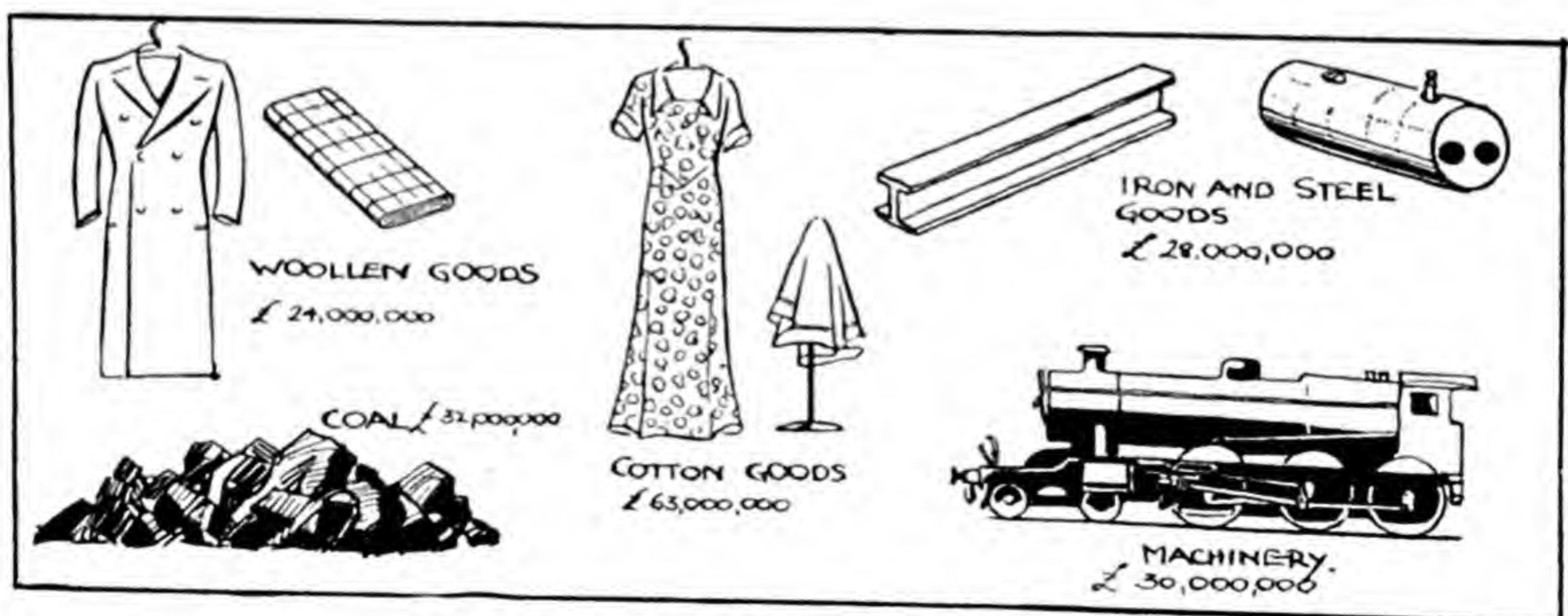
have got £1 worth in for every £1 worth we sent out. Why didn't we? I will give you a pause of a minute whilst you think that out. But first I must tell you that, for reasons I will not explain now, the actual difference between what we sold and what we bought was not quite 2 to 1. The actual figure was £289 million.

Pause for breath and reflection if necessary.

Let us go back to this riddle of how it came about that in 1932 we bought from foreigners about £289 million worth of goods more than we sold them. You must not think of this buying and selling as being all done with money. It is true that money—or, to be more correct, bits of paper which represent money—is used for this trade, but in fact it is an exchange of goods and services. Notice that extra word “services.”

It is clear enough that if an Englishman sells a South American a motor-car worth £1,000 the Englishman can be paid by the South American sending over a £1,000 worth of beef. But, as I told you just before the pause, we seem to have received £289 million worth more of “things” than we sent out. This is where that word “service” comes in.

We own many merchant ships which we hire out to people



A FEW OF BRITAIN'S EXPORTS

all over the world, and in 1932 we were paid about £70 million for the use of our ships. We have also, for many years, invested our savings abroad, and in 1932 we received about £140 million as interest on these investments. Further, our bankers and insurance people do jobs for foreigners for which they charge a fee. We made about £30 million in this way in 1932. We picked up another £15 million in various ways, and though I do not suppose you have remembered the figures, I can tell you that we earned through these services—or invisible exports as they are called—about £259 million.

Now let us see how our balance of trade looks.

We bought from abroad £289 million more than we sold abroad. We were paid from abroad £259 million in fees of various kinds.

So that all but £30 million of the big difference between our imports and exports was accounted for by these fees.

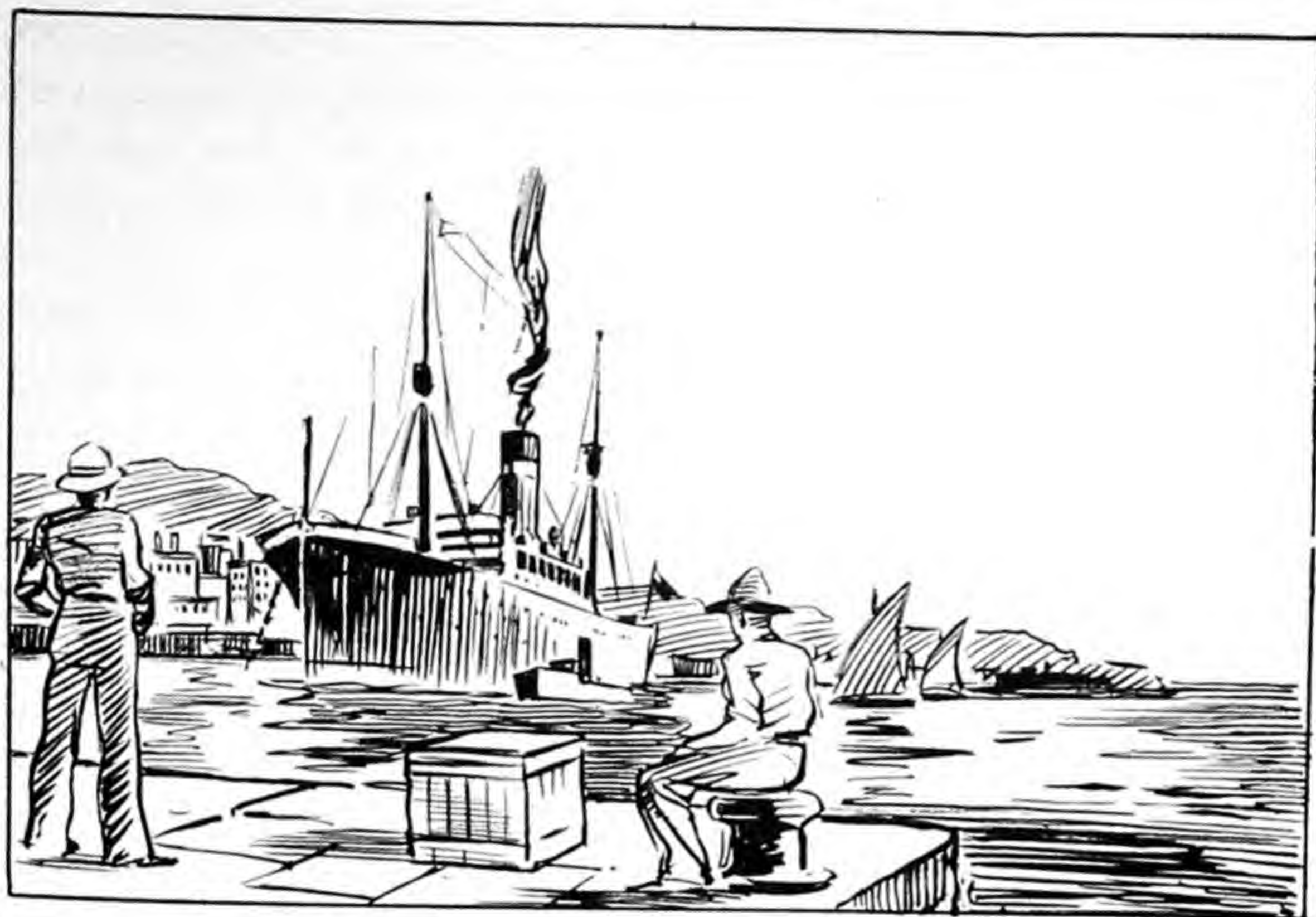
Now, if you have understood all this, you understand something which most grown-ups in this country do not understand, for you understand how and why we are able to buy more goods abroad (imports) than we sell abroad (exports).

Some people and many newspapers think that when they see figures such as "Great Britain has bought £700 million worth of goods and sold only £400 million," that this is dreadful. But, as you can now see, we *must* buy more than we sell in goods if we are to be paid these fees on the extra services I have been talking about.

This is such an important matter, and is so little understood that I think we ought to spend a little more time on it, don't you?

Imagine that I am Great Britain and that you are a foreign country. I sell you boots and broadcast talks. £5 worth of boots and £3 worth of broadcast talks. You pay me by sending me £8 worth of sweets.

It will *seem* as if I am getting £8 worth of sweets for £5 worth



A SHIP AT ANCHOR IN A FOREIGN PORT

of boots, if you only look at the visible part of our trade. The odd £3 which *you* send me in visible sweets are the fee you pay me for sending you an invisible talk.

Well, in this talk I have done no more than touch on one or two interesting points in our foreign trade. There is, of course, a great deal more to be learnt about foreign trade than what I have told you, and it is a subject you should study for yourself, for it is upon our trade that our lives depend.

HOME TRADE

So far I have been talking about exchanging the goods made in our own country for those made in other parts of the world—this is called our foreign trade. But there is also another kind of trade—Home Trade. This means the exchange of goods between different parts of our own country—between the villages

and the big towns, or between two different towns or two different villages. The country people sell to the towns such things as milk, eggs and meat, and buy from the towns clothes, tools and furniture. Sheffield does business with Luton, exchanging steel for straw hats; or a Scottish farmer sells seed potatoes to an English farmer in exchange for English grass seeds. All these dealings between different parts of the country go to make up Home Trade.

In old days farmers brought produce to market, sold it, and spent the money received on buying woven cloth, iron, tools and such things, produced by craftsmen in the towns. Nowadays matters are more complicated. The farmer takes his produce to market, where it is sold by auction to a big wholesale dealer. The wholesale dealer sells it again, possibly to a wholesale dealer at the other end of the county. This second wholesale dealer sells it to shops or retail dealers; the shops then sell it to private people. So a farmer, say, for instance, sells sheep in Hampshire; these sheep eventually turn up as mutton, say, in Durham and are bought by a miner's wife. The coal the miner digs may, in its turn, arrive, after passing through the hands of wholesalers, at a retail coal merchant's store in Winchester and be bought by the farmer. Each lot of people through whose hands the coal or the mutton pass add a little bit on to the price before they sell it to the next dealer, so as to pay them for their trouble in buying and selling. This money is called the middleman's profits. A lot of hard things are said about the share of profit the middleman takes—because the more people through whose hands the farmer's mutton passes, the higher will the price be when the mutton is sold in a shop. But you must always remember that the middleman is a very useful person. Coal in Durham is not much use to a farmer in Hampshire; it has got to be brought to Hampshire before he can buy it, and the people who buy it and bring it there must be paid something for their pains. Exactly

how much they ought to be paid is a very difficult question, about which there is a good deal of argument.

All this process of buying things in one part of the country and selling it in another is what is called Home Trade. When you hear people talking about the importance of developing the Home Market, you will know that it means persuading people in our own towns to buy more of the produce of our own countryside, or, vice versa, getting country people to buy more of the things made in our own towns.

QUESTIONS. TALK 3 (A)

1. "Trade follows the flag." Find out what this is supposed to mean.
2. Do you think that if it is good for an Englishman to "buy British" as much as possible, it is also right for a Canadian to "buy Canadian" as much as possible?
3. What are the names of three important British shipping lines? Where do their ships go to and come from?
4. What do the following words mean: *freight, invoice, bankrupt, sample, tariff, hire instalment, auction*?





CHAPTER 3 (B)

HOW GREAT BRITAIN BECAME A MANUFACTURING NATION

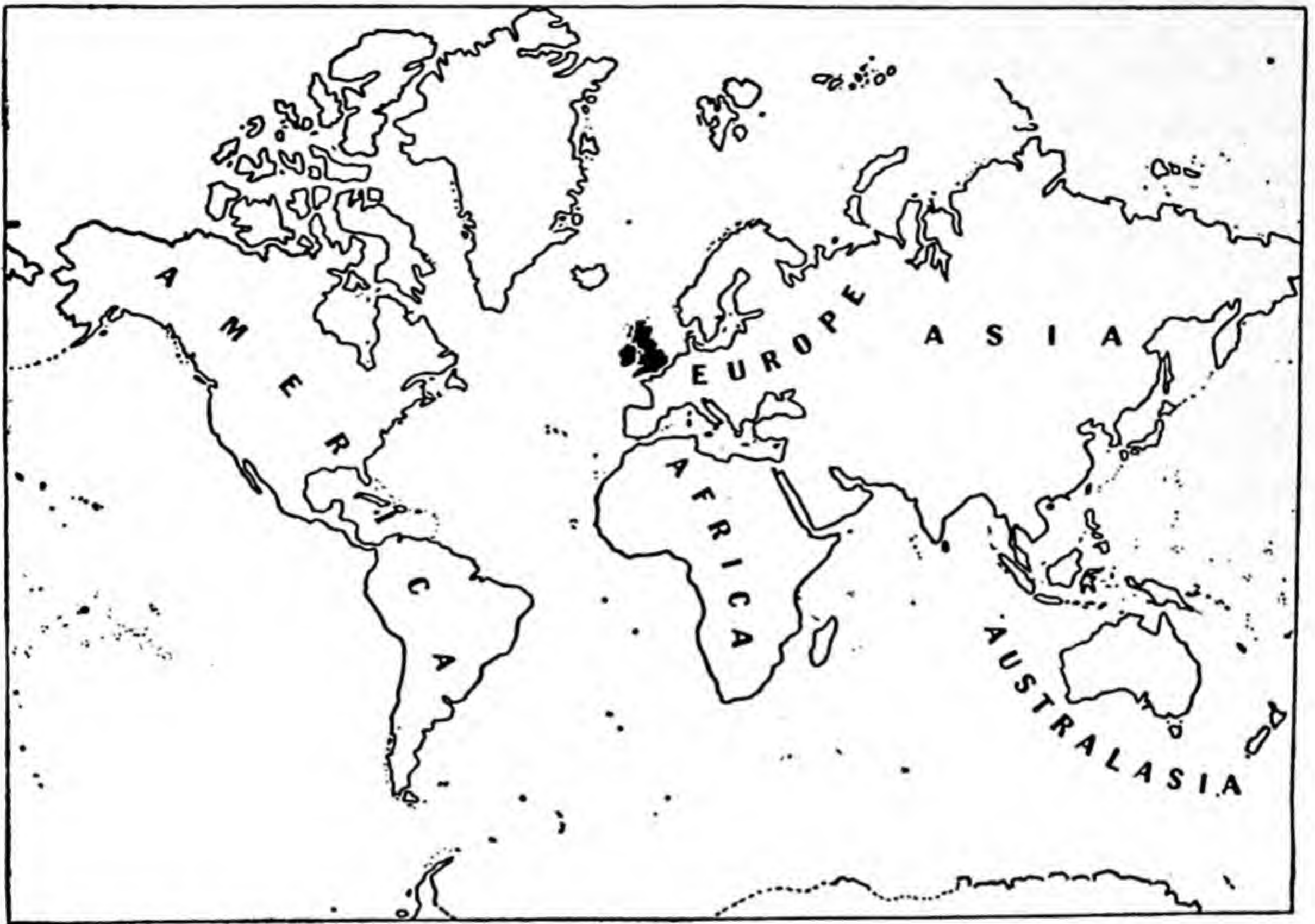
THE title of this talk, "How Great Britain became a Manufacturing Nation," leads us to examine certain facts which have been and are of tremendous importance in our national life. But before I get down to the main substance of the talk, a few introductory statements are necessary.

In the world to-day it is possible to make a rough division of the civilised countries into what are called either PRIMARY PRODUCING countries, *i.e.* countries which grow foodstuffs such as wheat, rye, barley, rear cattle, fish, or which have raw materials such as minerals, timber, rubber, in such abundance that they are able to sell these things to the other great group of countries which are called MANUFACTURING OR SECONDARY PRODUCING. Some of the countries in this group have many of the products of the primary producing countries within their own boundaries, *e.g.* America, but the greater number are dependent on outside supplies both for foodstuffs and raw materials. The people of the secondary producing countries earn their living by making the raw materials into manufactures which they sell to their own

people, to the primary producing countries, and to other manufacturing countries. Now, Great Britain belongs to this manufacturing group, and, more than that, only produces enough food within her own borders to feed her population for about seven weeks of the whole year. But this has not always been the case, and, roughly speaking, it is only during the last 130 years that this great change has come about. Great Britain was the first country to develop great industries in what may be called the machine age. It is to find out the reasons for this fact which is the purpose of this talk. The points to which I am going to draw your attention are four:—

1. THE GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF GREAT BRITAIN.
2. THE IMPORTANCE OF SEA-POWER AND THE COLONIAL WARS OF THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES.
3. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.
4. THE RAW MATERIALS IN GREAT BRITAIN IN THE 18TH CENTURY.

1. If you take the map of the world on page 48, cover up the whole American continent, the whole of Africa except for the North and Red Sea coasts, Australia, New Zealand, and then look at the position of Great Britain, you will learn something of great importance. That is that Great Britain, before the voyages of discovery of the late 15th century, was very much on the edge of things—she was a terminus rather than a distributing centre for trade. Do not think that Great Britain had no overseas trade before the voyages of discovery—she had, but other places were more fortunately situated to become great centres of trade between countries—Venice, Genoa, the towns on the large rivers of Central Europe, such as Leipzig. However, when the New World was opened up, the geographical position of Great Britain was completely altered. She was now situated in the middle between the Old and New Worlds—one of



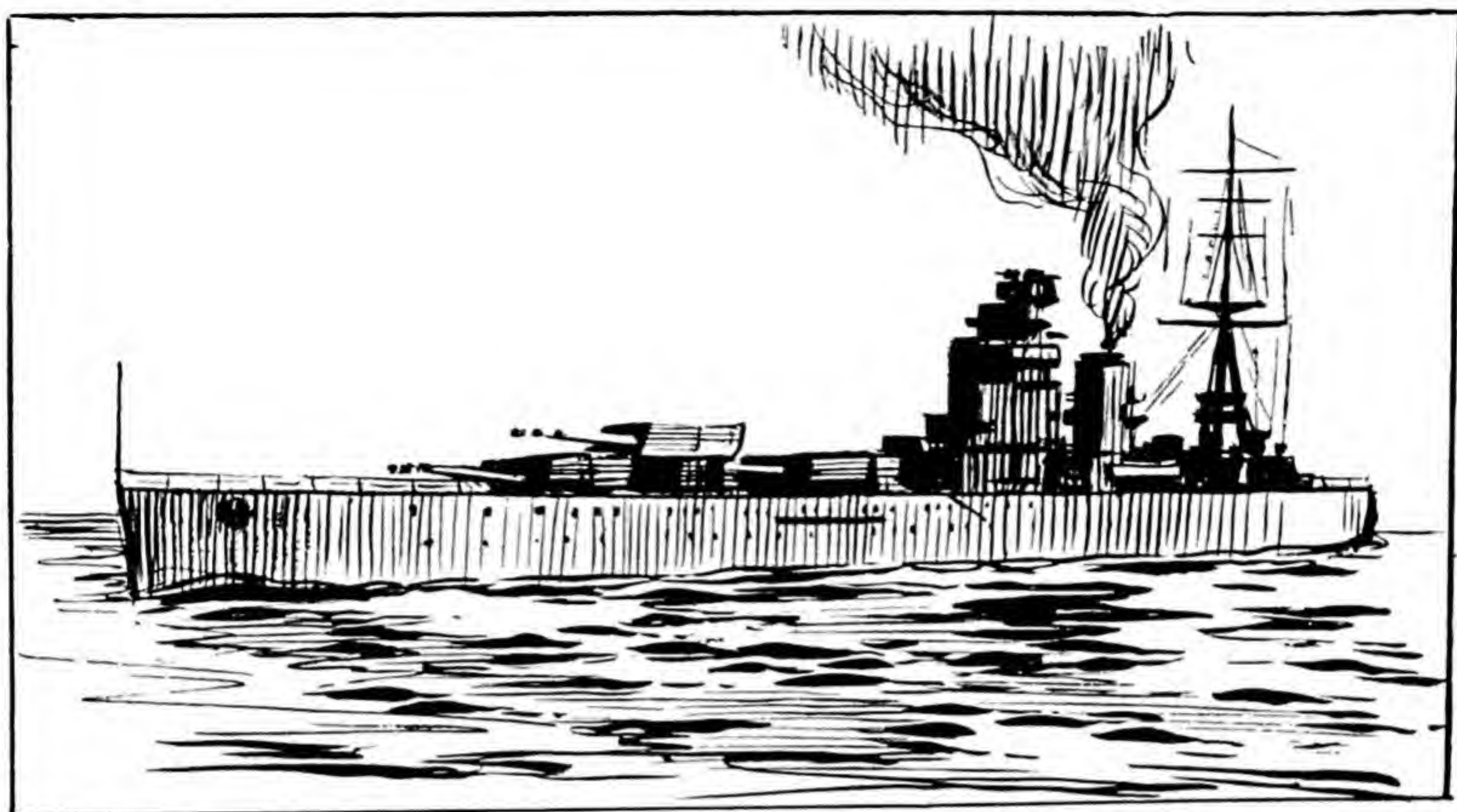
GREAT BRITAIN'S CENTRAL POSITION IN THE WORLD

the first places ships must touch on their way to the markets of Europe and one of the obvious places from which they would start on their way to the markets of the New World.

2. But just as England's position was altered, so, too, was the position of Spain, France and Holland. These countries, too, realised that new opportunities were now open to them—as a matter of fact, they were in the field before Great Britain, as it was mostly explorers from those countries which opened up the New World—and they were eager to take advantage of them. This explains the long struggle for possessions overseas and for control of the seas to these possessions to protect the cargoes as they came back to Europe, which began at the end of the 16th century and lasted down to 1815.

Each of the countries I have mentioned tried to build up a preserve of its own in the New World, and keep all trade in it to themselves. This scheme was known as the Mercantile System, and the facts relating to it are to be found in the various Navigation Acts of the time of Cromwell and Charles II, about which I expect you have all heard. But at any rate one of the objects of this policy was to make the colonies supply raw materials for the mother country. Great Britain successfully overcame each of these possible rivals : Spain, after the defeat of the Armada in 1588, gradually fades away ; Holland, as the result of the two Dutch wars in the time of Cromwell and Charles II, together with the strain of maintaining a long struggle against Louis XIV, found she could not stand the pace, and although she has always maintained her character of being a great trading country, she ceased to be a really serious rival to Great Britain after the 17th century. There remained France, and you all know that it was with that country that we had the longest and bitterest struggle before we finally came out on top in 1815. If you ask what were the main reasons why we won, I think that we should not be far wrong if we put forward these three points :

1. *Great Britain's Superior Power at Sea.*—It is no good having overseas possessions and markets unless you can protect them, and the routes from them. Therefore you must have a navy, and, fortunately for us, the statesmen of Great Britain, and her kings, too, placed more reliance on, and saw the necessity of maintaining a navy equal to these tasks more continuously and effectively than did the kings and their advisers of our rivals. France, in particular, was torn between two loves—conquering Europe and capturing colonies, and she could not do both. We directed our main attention to overseas. Just think of the part sea-power played in the capture of Canada and India, and



ONE OF THE SHIPS THAT PROTECT OUR OVERSEAS POSSESSIONS AND
TRADE: H.M.S. NELSON

in keeping England free from invasion during the wars against Napoleon.

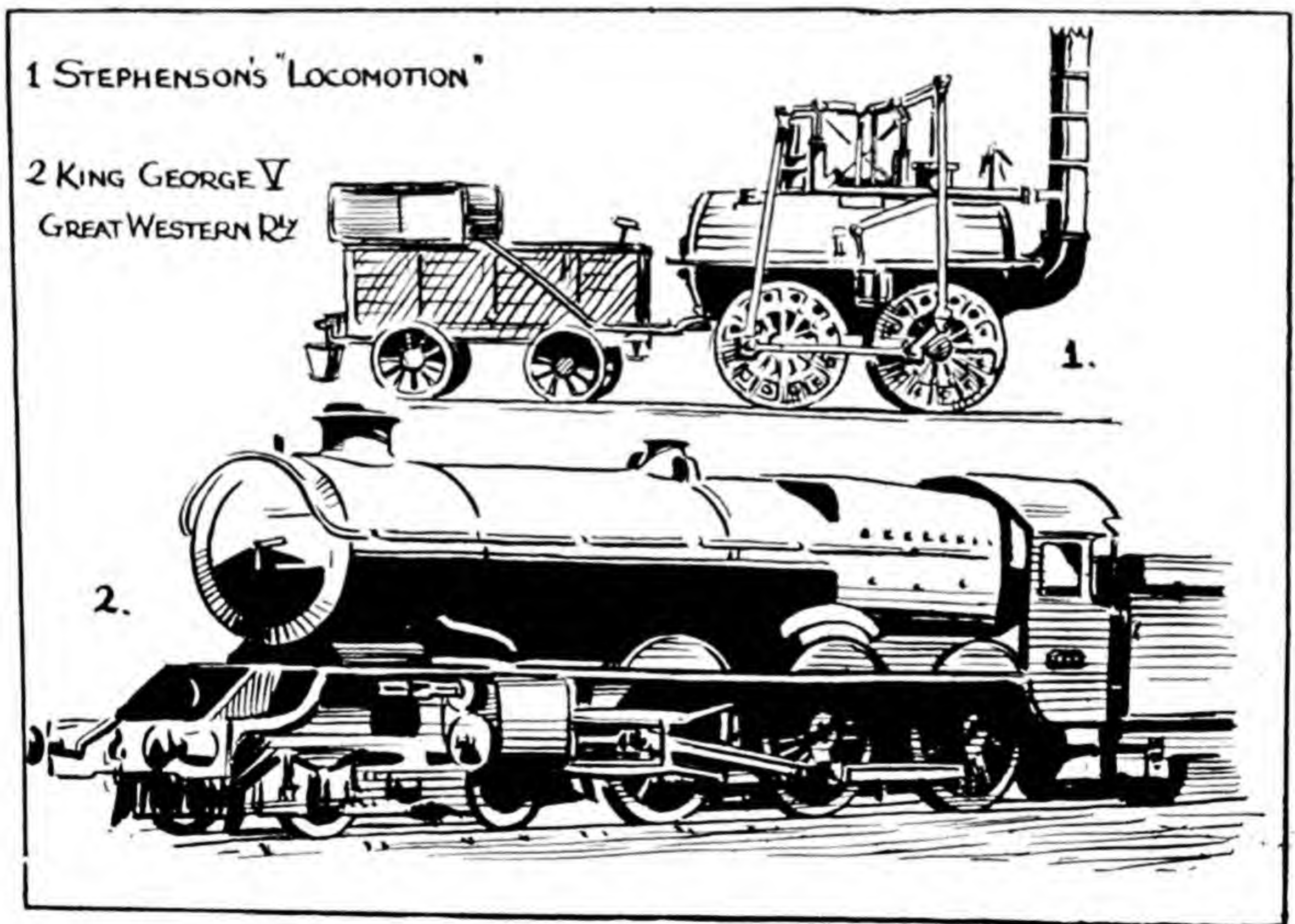
2. *Allies in Europe.*—We were fortunate, too, in having allies in Europe who were able to keep the French occupied on the Continent, while we devoted our main efforts to the capture of overseas possessions. You remember what Pitt said about winning Canada on the Banks of the Elbe; remember, too, what happened in the American War of Independence when we lost command of the sea—Yorktown—and when we had no ally in Europe we nearly lost Gibraltar.

3. *Money.*—The trading of our merchants gave us the money not only to help to pay for these wars, but to pay our allies as well. It was said of the Earl of Chatham that he made trade to flourish in spite of war, and during the Napoleonic Wars we were called the paymaster of Europe. In addition, our system of taxation was fairer than that of France, so that both from a

trading and money point of view we were in a better position than France.

In these three points I have given you much food for thought, and I should like to think that some of you were going to study them a little more fully yourselves. But we must get back to the main object of our talk.

What has all this business about founding and capturing overseas possessions in the 17th and 18th centuries got to do with our becoming a great industrial and manufacturing nation? Just this. Every new piece of territory added meant more people wanting the things which Great Britain made; in other words, there was an increasing demand for textiles, woollens, pottery, and ironware. Now, when demand for goods increases, there



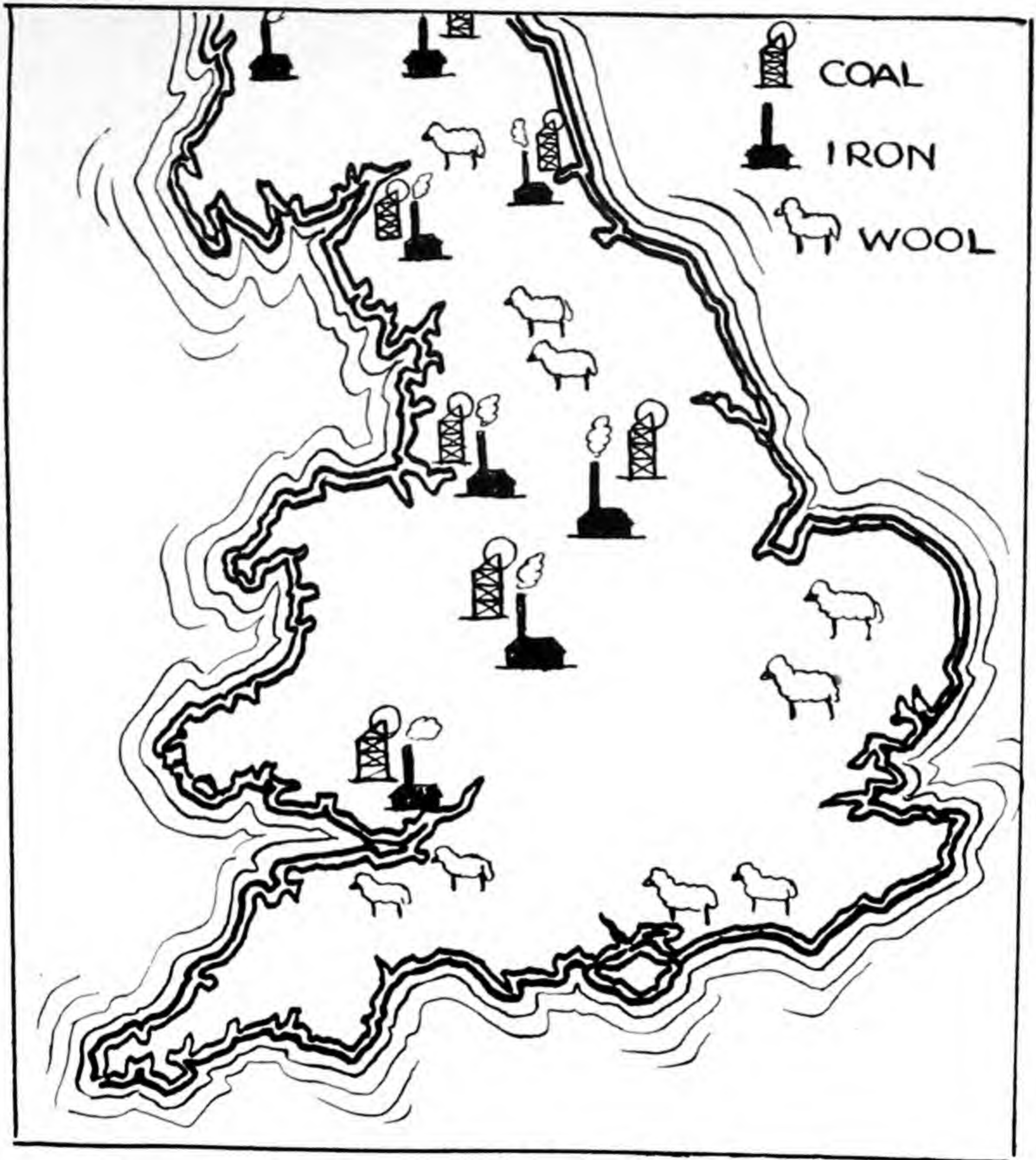
1. A STEAM ENGINE OF THE EARLY 19TH CENTURY. 2. A POWERFUL LOCOMOTIVE IN USE TO-DAY ON THE GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY

are always people waiting to take advantage of the fact, and eager to make money by supplying the additional wants. In the 18th century it was found that the existing methods of making things was unable to satisfy the ever-increasing demand. What was the result? People began to think of new, quicker, and better ways of producing goods. The result of all this thinking is seen in the tremendous crop of inventions and discoveries during the latter half of the 18th century—and explains why steam power was developed, machines were invented, why roads and canals were built to carry quickly the increased quantity of goods. What we call the Industrial Revolution had begun—it is still going on, and it has transformed the whole character of Great Britain. Can you remember some of the names of the great pioneers and inventors of this period? This will be something for you to do when this talk is finished. What I want to do is to get clearly into your heads the chain of causes: **MARKETS OVERSEAS; INCREASED DEMAND; THINKING HOW TO SATISFY IT; INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES; INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.**

It was not mere chance that the Industrial Revolution began in the latter half of the 18th century, and that by the beginning of the next century Napoleon was calling us the shopkeepers of the world.

There is one other point to which I want to draw your attention.

Steam power needs coal; machines need iron and steel. Look at the map on page 53. See how the iron- and coal-fields are not only close together, but are also for the most part not very far from the sea. What is more, realise that Great Britain had such plentiful supplies of the two raw materials required to develop the Industrial Revolution. This is a most important fact in our history, and for these reasons. It was possible for Great Britain not only to make her machines and to drive them, but also to have coal over to send to other countries who had



DISTRIBUTION OF COAL, IRON AND WOOL IN ENGLAND AND WALES

none, in exchange for their raw materials or foodstuffs. By being able to send out our ships with cargoes of coal and manufactures, it made the cost of bringing back the raw materials and food much cheaper than it otherwise would have been, this

in turn made the cost of our manufactures made out of these raw materials less than they would otherwise have been.

Wool, too, played a part in bringing prosperity to Great Britain, and although cotton goods became a dangerous rival, nevertheless the great sheep-breeding areas which you see marked on the map on page 53 provided us with ample supplies of wool.

Lastly, there were two other very valuable and necessary raw materials which these islands supplied: the first was the skill of the British workman—the navigators who built the canals, railways, and roads, the great engineers, the artisans, the operatives, the mechanics, all of whom played their part in bringing about this great transformation in the life of our country. The other raw material was capital supplied by the savings of the thrifty-minded people of Great Britain from their savings, and from the fortunes made in trading with the New World. Without capital none of the great inventions could have been developed.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Why was Great Britain so late in the field of discovery and so late in founding colonies?
2. Colour an outline map of the world to show Britain's colonies at any date or dates you consider important.
3. Bristol, Liverpool, Glasgow, Southampton, Hull, and Newcastle, are all great ports. Find out what trade has brought prosperity in the past to each of them.



CHAPTER 4 (A)

MONEY OF TO-DAY

TALK I, the life of to-day with its many needs; Talk II, the jobs of to-day, the story of many men making many things and giving many services needed in the life of to-day. Then we came to Talk III, with its account of the exchange between men of the things each man had made or grown. This was the story of trade, or commerce as it is sometimes called. And so we reached this talk, which is to be about money, or finance, to use another word which also means money. Money is NOT WEALTH. A pair of boots, a house, a field, a lump of coal, a motor-car, a cup of tea—all these things are wealth. But money is NOT WEALTH. What is money? Money is a claim on wealth. Money represents, or stands for, wealth. Money is like a bus-ticket—a bus-ticket is *not* a ride in a bus, but if you hold the bus-ticket [and it is not one you have picked up off the floor of the bus or in the street], then you have in your hand the right to have a ride in the bus. Why do men use money? Simply in order to make trade easier. Mr. Boswell will tell you some-

thing about how trade used to be carried on before men invented money—such trade was called barter. When you and your friend exchange two things you are trading by barter. Mr. Boswell will also tell you that when men first invented money they were not quite sure what was the best thing to use for money, and how by degrees most men decided that metal coins made of gold, silver and copper or nickel were the best form of money. Then Mr. Boswell will tell you that, as trade increased and large sums of money passed between men, because large quantities of goods were being exchanged, merchants found it impossible to use coins, and this brought paper money into use. Just as money represents wealth, so paper money was invented to represent gold money, and this brings me to modern or present-day money, for, though it may surprise you to hear me say so, nearly all the money we use now-a-days is paper money.

Now, the first thing you must know, is that just as trade takes place between people in this country, *and* between people in this country and in foreign countries, so money is used between, say, an Englishman in London and one in Birmingham, and money is also used if that Englishman in London wishes to sell or buy something to or from a German in Berlin or a Frenchman in Paris or an American in New York. Let us see what happens when an Englishman in London called Jones buys two hundred motor-cars at £200 each from a man in Birmingham called Smith. Mr. Jones takes out his cheque-book [ask someone to show you a cheque] and writes on a cheque an order to his bank to pay Mr. Smith 200 times £200 = £40,000. I am taking it for granted that Mr. Jones has got £40,000 in the bank; if he has not, he has no right to tell his bank to pay Mr. Smith £40,000. Mr. Smith gets the cheque and takes it to his bank and says, "Here is an order from Jones telling the X.Y.Z. bank to pay me £40,000." Mr. Smith's bank takes the cheque and sends it to London, where it goes to the X.Y.Z.



AT THE COUNTER OF A BANK

bank, who then open a big book in which they keep a statement showing how much money Mr. Jones has got a right to order them to pay out. They cross off £40,000 from this statement and give Mr. Smith's bank in London £40,000. Mr. Smith's bank then writes to Birmingham to their branch and say, "You can tell Mr. Smith that he has got £40,000." The bank in Birmingham then open a big book and write in it the figures £40,000. From that moment Mr. Smith can if he wishes to do so write out cheques telling his bank to pay people sums of money up to £40,000.

A cheque is *not* money, but it is an invention to make it easier to move money about from one part of the country to the other. If I wanted to send you £1000 I should not collect a thousand £1 notes and send them to you by post; they might be lost. I should send you a cheque for £1000, and you could take the cheque

to your bank, and, *after* they had found out that I really had £1000 in my bank, your bank would give you the money. If you promise to leave this £1000 with the bank for a certain time they will pay you a small fee, perhaps £25 a year for the use of your money. The banks do not leave your money in their vaults. They lend it out to people who need money for their businesses. They will not, however, lend out money to a business man unless he gives them some security. He may come along to a bank and say, "I have a house or factory worth £2000; will you lend me £1000 on condition that if I am unable to repay the £1000 on the proper date you—the bank—shall have the right to sell my house or factory and get your money back that way?" In such a case as this the bank will probably lend the business man £1000, which may be the £1000 you have put in the bank. The bank will then tell the business man that he may draw cheques up to £1000. They will have given him what is called a credit for £1000. Now, here is an odd fact. The total amount of credit being used in the country is about ten times the amount of money in existence in the banks in the form of cash and notes. The modern money system in this country and in most other countries is like a pyramid, on its point. At the point is a lump of gold; then comes some paper money representing gold, but there is more paper money than there is gold represented by it, and then comes bank credit, which is also a kind of money, though it is not true money.

Pause here for breath and reflection if necessary.

Now I want to say a few words about money when it is used in foreign trade. Suppose an Englishman wants to buy a bale of cotton in America; he wires to the American and says, "How much?" The American replies "Five dollars!" This sounds all right to the Englishman, but he has only got £'s. So he must go to a bank and buy dollars. The number of dollars

he can buy for a £1 is called the rate of exchange between £'s and dollars. At the present moment you can buy * dollars for a £, and * francs (Paris), * marks (Berlin), and * lira (Rome) for a £. I hope you noticed I mentioned the names of several towns—those were the capital cities of the countries in which francs, marks and lira are used. When all countries are on the gold standard one knows exactly how much of his money one must give to buy a £.

In the months of June and July, 1933, there was a great meeting in London of sixty-six nations called the World Economic Conference. The object of this meeting was to see whether any arrangements could be made to improve trade between nations. Ever since about 1929 the nations of the world have been suffering from very bad business troubles. You will hear people talking about "the crisis," or "the slump," and by these words they mean their business troubles, which have led to so much unemployment all over the world. It was decided at the meeting that there were two jobs which needed tackling. One was the job of getting countries to agree to stabilising the foreign value of their money, and the other was to get the countries to agree to make tariffs lower.

"Stabilising the foreign value of their money" sounds rather difficult to understand. But it simply means that at this great meeting of the nations, people wanted to find out whether something could be done to make it certain that the same number of £'s and dollars and francs were always equal in value to each other. It is so important that you should get hold of this idea that I am going to explain it again. When the exchanges are stable or steady, it simply means that one knows that £1 will always buy the same number of dollars—say $4\frac{1}{2}$, and of course $4\frac{1}{2}$ dollars will then buy £1.

* Fill these gaps in for yourself. At the moment (April 1934) they alter each day.

Not long ago I was sitting in the country wondering how to move some large rocks into my rock-garden, when I had a telegram from New York in which a man in America asked me to sell him something for \$1000. He said he would pay me in six months' time. This sounded all right, so I said, "I will sell," but I had to make a guess at the number of £'s I should get for my 1000 dollars. If this had happened three or four years ago, or before the war, I should have known that I was to get just over £200, and as I need this money to pay certain bills, I should have liked to have known what 1000 dollars were going to be worth to me in pounds in six months' time.

I told you that little story to show you what a nuisance it is if one does business abroad and does not know how many £'s one is going to get for a sum of foreign money. Now let us go back to that world meeting.

It sat for six weeks, and then broke up without settling anything at all. Why?

Because President Roosevelt of America said, "I am *not* prepared, for special reasons of my own, to say now that I will keep the American dollar the same value year in and year out."

The other nations—especially the French—said, "What is the good of talking about taking tariffs down and doing more trade if no one knows the value of the money we are going to pay each other with?" It is just as if one tried to make a frock and did all the measuring with an elastic tape measure.

QUESTIONS. TALK 4 (A)

1. How many francs or dollars could have been bought for £1 in London yesterday?
2. What is meant by the words *rate of interest*, *purchasing power*, *cheque*, *credit*?
3. Write an essay saying what you think is meant by "the gold standard." (Do not be discouraged if you get it all wrong!)
4. Where are English coins made, and what happens to them when they get worn out?
5. What countries at the present time are :—
 - (a) on the gold standard?
 - (b) off the gold standard?



CHAPTER 4 (B)

FROM BARTER TO CREDIT

THERE are two points I want you to have in your minds about modern buying and selling. What are they?

1. The very general use of bits of paper to represent gold and silver coin, bits of paper like bank-notes, cheques, postal orders, money orders, bills of exchange, and notes issued by the governments of countries.

2. Most of our modern buying and selling is done with borrowed money; that sounds funny, doesn't it? But I do not mean the kind of buying and selling that you and I do when we go into a confectioner's shop and ask for a pennyworth of sweets; I mean the buying and selling of raw materials, the money used to build factories, and the buying and selling between countries. This borrowed money is called credit—which means quite simply the right of a person to use now money which he hopes to have by and by when he has sold the goods at a profit—that is, the goods he bought with the borrowed money. The

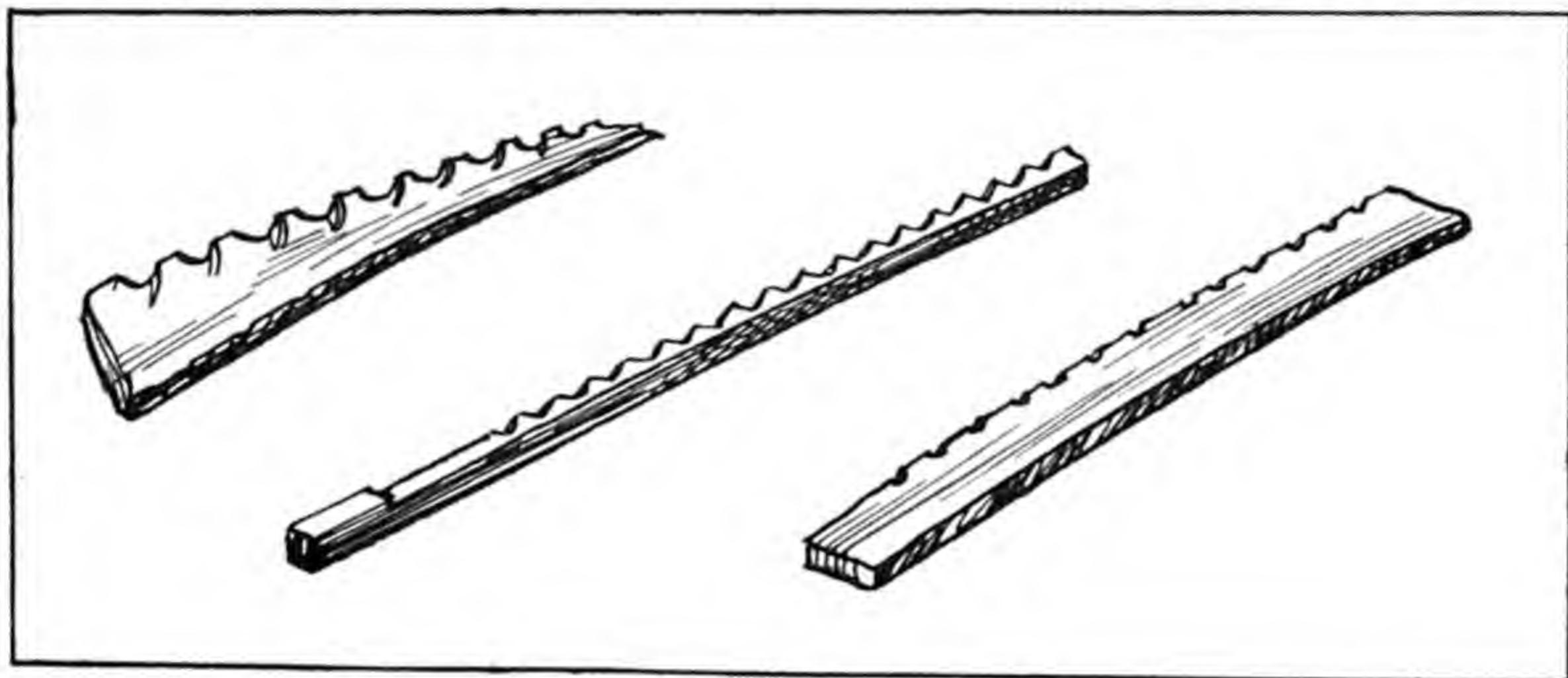
people who lend this money are banks, and the charge they make for the use of this borrowed money is called the rate of interest.

Well, the first stage about which I am going to talk is called barter—the kind of thing that went on before money was used, and, funnily, the kind of thing that is in use to-day when money of all sorts is extensively used. This business of barter is really very easy to explain, because I am sure that most of you at some time or another have bartered things, especially you stamp-collectors. Briefly it is this. For any exchange to take place you must have what the other fellow wants, he must have what you want, and, more than that, both of you must think that the two things are of equal value. It is quite obvious that this state of affairs cannot always happen, and so something had to be found which would be accepted by everyone as a measure of value and which would be accepted in exchange for things. In the course of time two of the precious metals became the standard—gold or silver. Gold became the standard metal because it has certain properties which other metals have not. Everybody the world over, regards gold as precious, and, further, gold is gold, the world over. There are not different qualities of gold and it cannot be counterfeited (look up this word if you do not know what it means). Then it is possible to carry about considerable value in a small quantity of gold. Think of the difference in the value of a hundredweight of coal and a hundredweight of gold. (Do they have hundredweights of gold?) These are some of the reasons, then, why people chose gold as their standard. Now I think it is time to get Baron Rollo to say a few words.

Baron Rollo

“Well, the first thing you have to get into your heads is that the amount of buying and selling is much less in my

time than in yours, because in my time, as I told you in talks Chaps. 1 (B) and 2 (B), we grow and make many of our everyday wants in our neighbourhood, and many of my rents



HAZEL-STICK TALLIES, WHICH WERE THE RECEIPTS OF
THE MIDDLE AGES

are paid to me by my tenants performing services for me on my estates or by giving me food at Christmas, Easter, and Michaelmas. So we do not need so many coins, although we are beginning now to pay our labourers money to work for us. We, of course, have coins—mostly silver pennies—but there are always people playing about with them, clipping bits off them—for they have no milled edges like your coins—and so the amount of metal varies in each coin, which is very disturbing. When I go to London every Easter and Michaelmas to make my payments to the King at the Royal Exchequer, all my coins are either weighed against standard coins, or are melted down and the amount of metal compared with that in standard coins, and any difference has to be made up by me.

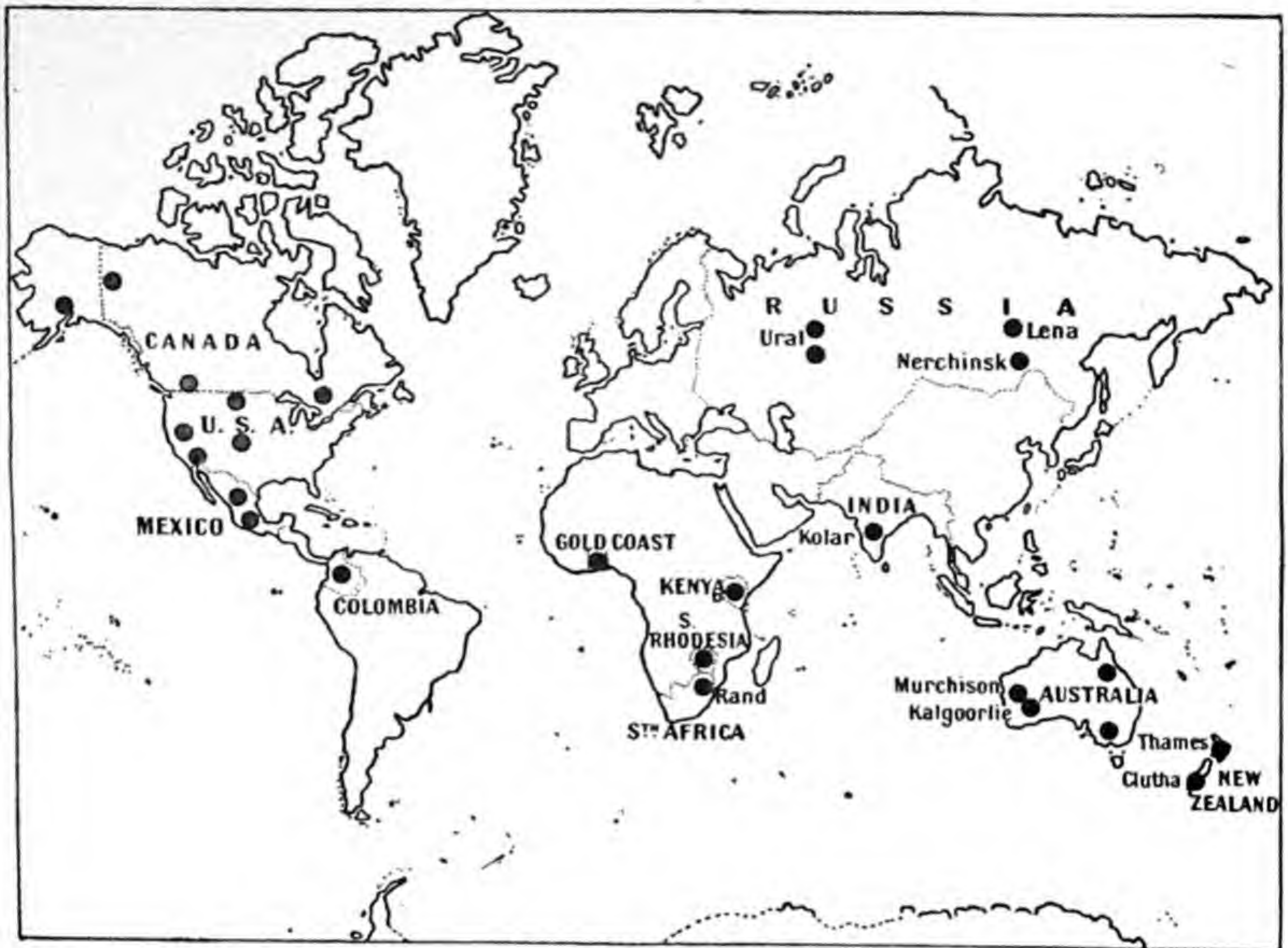
“I think that you would be interested in our forms of receipts. They are called tallies, which are hazel sticks about eight inches long on which notches are cut to represent so much money.

For example, a cut as thick as the palm of the hand is £1000, a thumb thickness £100, and one the breadth of a barley corn £1. The stick is then split so that the split goes through the notches. I keep one half; the Exchequer the other. There can be no faking of this receipt.

“But what I am most interested in is the difference between your ideas and ours on this question of borrowing money at a rate of interest. With us there is a very strong feeling against it, and this feeling is mainly because the Church disapproves of usury, as it is called. It is thought to be unnatural for money to breed money, as we say, and also are we not bidden in the Gospel to ‘lend, hoping for nothing again’? Not that it is impossible to borrow money. The Jews used to be the great moneylenders until they were driven out in 1290 by Edward I of blessed memory. Now there are foreigners from Italy—the Bardi and Peruzzi—to take their place. These men lend money to the King and traders, but it is their own money, not other people’s that they are risking. There is no doubt that we are beginning to see that this point of view about usury is harmful to business, and that we could do much more buying and selling if we permitted traders to borrow money more freely than they can do now.”

Mr. Pepys

“Now, this is a subject after my own heart, for I was ever one to be careful about money—making an estimate of my belongings every month at least and sometimes oftener. Of course the extent of our buying and selling is very much greater than yours, Rollo, and also we have discovered a whole lot of gold and silver mines in the New World, which have enabled us to have gold coin and, also, our coins are now milled, thanks to our Good Queen Bess. But it is not of these things that I would speak to you, but of a new development called banking or banking.



THE WORLD'S GOLD-FIELDS

“The idea of placing any money which you do not want for the moment or of taking your valuables like precious stones and plate for safe keeping with some Abbot of a monastery, or a famous merchant like Sir Thomas Gresham of Queen Bess’s time—this idea, I say, is not a new one, but it has increased greatly of late years owing to the troublous times of the Civil War and of the Protectorate. Nowadays it is to the Goldsmiths in London that most men of wealth are giving their valuables for safe keeping; for have not these Goldsmiths mighty safe places for the stowing of their own gold? But that is not the whole story.

“The Goldsmiths give a receipt—a bit of paper—for the coin or valuables deposited with them, and these receipts are now accepted by other people instead of coin, so that these receipts

are the ancestors of your bank-note. These notes were much easier to carry about and much easier to hide—both important things in this time of highway-robbers.

“But there is more even than this to it. The Goldsmiths soon saw that they were earning no gain on these deposits lying idle in their vaults, and so they have begun the practice of lending these deposits for a short time to other people who want to borrow money for some enterprise. They charge a higher rate of interest to these borrowers than they give to the depositors, so they are making money out of other people’s money. A wondrous profitable notion, but there is this pitfall. The Goldsmiths hope that the borrowers will pay back their loan before the depositor wishes to withdraw any of his money. The whole scheme depends on confidence: the confidence of the depositor that he can have his money at any time; confidence that the borrower will pay back the loan plus the interest when it falls due. We have had an unfortunate example in my time of what happens when this confidence does not exist. In January 1672, My Lord the King found it inconvenient to pay the interest on a loan he had from the Goldsmiths, and much alarm and confusion were caused thereby. Nevertheless, this idea of lending other people’s money has come to stay, for in 1694 was founded the Bank of England, which has been given the sole right of this business of banking and loaning of deposits in the city of London. But of that I have not time to tell; but, Rollo, you see we no longer have any scruples about lending money for a rate of interest.”

Mr. Addleshaw

“Well, I do not know quite where to begin, but as Mr. Pepys finished with a word about the Bank of England, I might as well begin with it. We have a saying ‘safe as the Bank of England,’ which gives you some idea, Mr. Pepys, what a powerful and important institution in the world of money it has become.

“The Bank of England is the Government’s bank—that is, it keeps the Government’s account, it keeps a lot of gold in its vaults, and every Friday morning I can see in the paper exactly how much gold it has, and how many notes it has issued. It issues five-pound notes, for which I can get five golden sovereigns in exchange if I present one of these notes to the bank. But the Bank of England has no branch in my town of Oldham, and in fact does not do the kind of banking with which I am familiar at all. No, in Oldham we have branches of what are called joint stock banks—lots of them all ready to keep people’s accounts for them and to receive deposits, and to lend money to those who require it and can persuade a bank to lend it to them. Only now banks give you a cheque-book instead of your bit of paper, Mr. Pepys, and tell you to write out cheques to the value of the sum of money which they have lent you. These cheques, too, Mr. Pepys, all depend on trust, for a cheque is all right when you know the man has got money in the bank at the other end. You can find out how much money in cheques has gone through the London Clearing House each week by looking in the paper on Friday mornings, too.

“But if I want to send some money to a friend, I do it by postal order. This does not depend on trust, because my friend knows very well that I paid for it in cash and that he is only getting back at his end what I paid for it at the other. There is another type of credit which I know very well, and that is the credit which my wife gets at the stores. She always pays her bills at the end of the month, for if she did not she would not get credit.”

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. When and by whom were the gold-fields marked on the map discovered?
2. Why are people who put their gold and silver coins into a hole in the ground not so helpful to the community as those who put them into banks?
3. Who were the Lombardi, Sir Thomas Gresham, William Paterson, Sir Robert Peel, and how were they connected with the story of money?



CHAPTER 5 (A)

GOVERNMENT OF TO-DAY

IN my first four talks I have dealt in turn with the subjects of the variety of present-day life, the jobs of present-day life, the trade of present-day life and the money of present-day life. We have looked at the facts of present-day life from four points of view, and now we are going to take a look at it from point of view number five, before, in the last talk, we try to take a bird's-eye view of the facts of the whole business.

If you think of the first four talks, I believe that you will agree that it would be true to say that the facts I gave you showed that the affairs of each man are tremendously mixed up with those of every other man. There are a vast number of relationships between men, using that word in the sense that there is a relationship between, say, you and me at the present moment: a relationship made possible by the use of the printing machine which enables me to talk to you through this book. We have never met each other, or perhaps have done so without knowing it, and yet here we are both trying to do the same thing—make a success of these talk-chapters. And your teacher is also in this relationship, because I can do nothing to

help you to understand the problems of present-day life unless your teacher is ready to allow you to use this book. So do the men, many of whom are now dead, who passed laws in the House of Commons to say that all children in this country must go to school. You see that these relationships can link up the living and the dead; in fact, the business of these talks is to tell you the story of how the past is related to the present and the present to the past. This tale is called History.

Now Mr. Boswell, who has made a special study of history, tells me that he has noticed that as time passed by these relationships between man and man became more complicated and more widespread—I shall say no more about that fact, because if I did I should be giving you Mr. Boswell's next talk, and I do not want to "steal his thunder" (do you know that expression?). All I shall say is that when you have relationships between man and man, and even man and animals, it is necessary to have rules to govern or control the working of those relationships. That is the explanation of and reason for government, and because these relationships to-day have become so numerous and world-wide, you will find a great number of regulations or rules.

Let us take first the government inside our own country. It is a democratic government—that is to say, the people who are to be governed decide for themselves what the rules governing the relationships between man and man are to be. Our domestic or home government can best be considered under two heads. There are many matters—many relationships—which affect everyone in the nation, and the government in this case is done by the Central Government in London, by members of Parliament chosen by all the voters of the nation. There are other matters in which the relationships between man and man are chiefly of concern to the people in a county, a municipal area, an urban district or even a parish. In those matters, the government is carried on

by Local Governments chosen by local electors. I will now give you a table (on page 71) showing the names of the most important government offices in the Central Government, together with a word or two about what each has to look after.*

Let us take next Imperial Government. Inside the Empire there are a great many forms of those relationships which I mentioned earlier in the talk. There is, for instance, the relationship between Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and the Irish Free State. In this case, it is a question of trying to find out how equals can work together for a common end. I think perhaps this is the time to tell you that, though many people in the Dominions have the greatest admiration and love for Great Britain, it is the greatest possible mistake to imagine that, say, the Canadian or the South African thinks of Great Britain before he thinks of his own nation. After all, why should he? You do not think of the unemployed man in Canada before you think of the unemployed man in England.

Then comes the great problem of the government of India. That needs a talk to itself, and here I can only tell you that we are trying to find out how to bring about self-government in India whilst at the same time ensuring that the Indians do not have a crash by taking on more than they can manage. Of course, this raises very difficult questions, because many people in India think that it is high time we left them to rule themselves, whilst other people in this country hold the opposite view. But I can say no more about India now, beyond telling you that it is a very important question about which you should try to find out some more details.

And now we come to the question of the Colonies. And please do not make the mistake of calling the Dominions

* Summarised from a tale in *Hilary Growing Up*, by Stephen King-Hall. Ernest Benn, 3s. 6d.

Name of Department.	Title of Chief Man in Charge of Department.	Chief Duties of Department.
The Treasury	Chancellor of Exchequer	Looks after public revenue and expenditure.
Board of Inland Revenue, Board of Customs and Excise	These departments collect taxes and customs dues ordered by law; work with Treasury.	
Home Office	Secretary of State for Home Affairs	Peace and order in Great Britain, Police, Mercy, etc. Condition of work in factories.
Foreign Office	Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs	Relations between British Empire and other national-states and the League.
Dominions Office	Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs	Business between government of Great Britain and Dominion governments.
Colonial Office	Secretary of State for the Colonies	Matters to do with government of the Colonies.
India Office	Secretary of State for India	Matters to do with government of India (not dealt with by Indian Government).
War Office	Secretary of State for War	Controls the Army.
Admiralty	First Lord of the Admiralty	Controls the Navy.
Air Ministry	Secretary of State for Air	Controls Air Force, and in some ways civil flying.
Board of Trade	President of the B.O.T.	Helps British trade by publishing information. Sees that laws for safety at sea are kept.
Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries	Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries	Administers laws to do with food supply, fishing and farming, and gives out information useful to farmers and fishermen.
Ministry of Transport	Minister of Transport	Administers laws to do with all forms of transport; helps to improve transport arrangements in Great Britain.
Post Office	Postmaster General	Provides postal, telegraph and telephone services.
Ministry of Labour	Minister of Labour	Helps to settle labour disputes; controls Labour Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance.
Ministry of Health	Minister of Health	Looks after national health services.
Board of Education	President of B.O.E.	Attends to national educational arrangements.
Ministry of Pensions	Minister of Pensions	Attends to payment of pensions due to Great War.

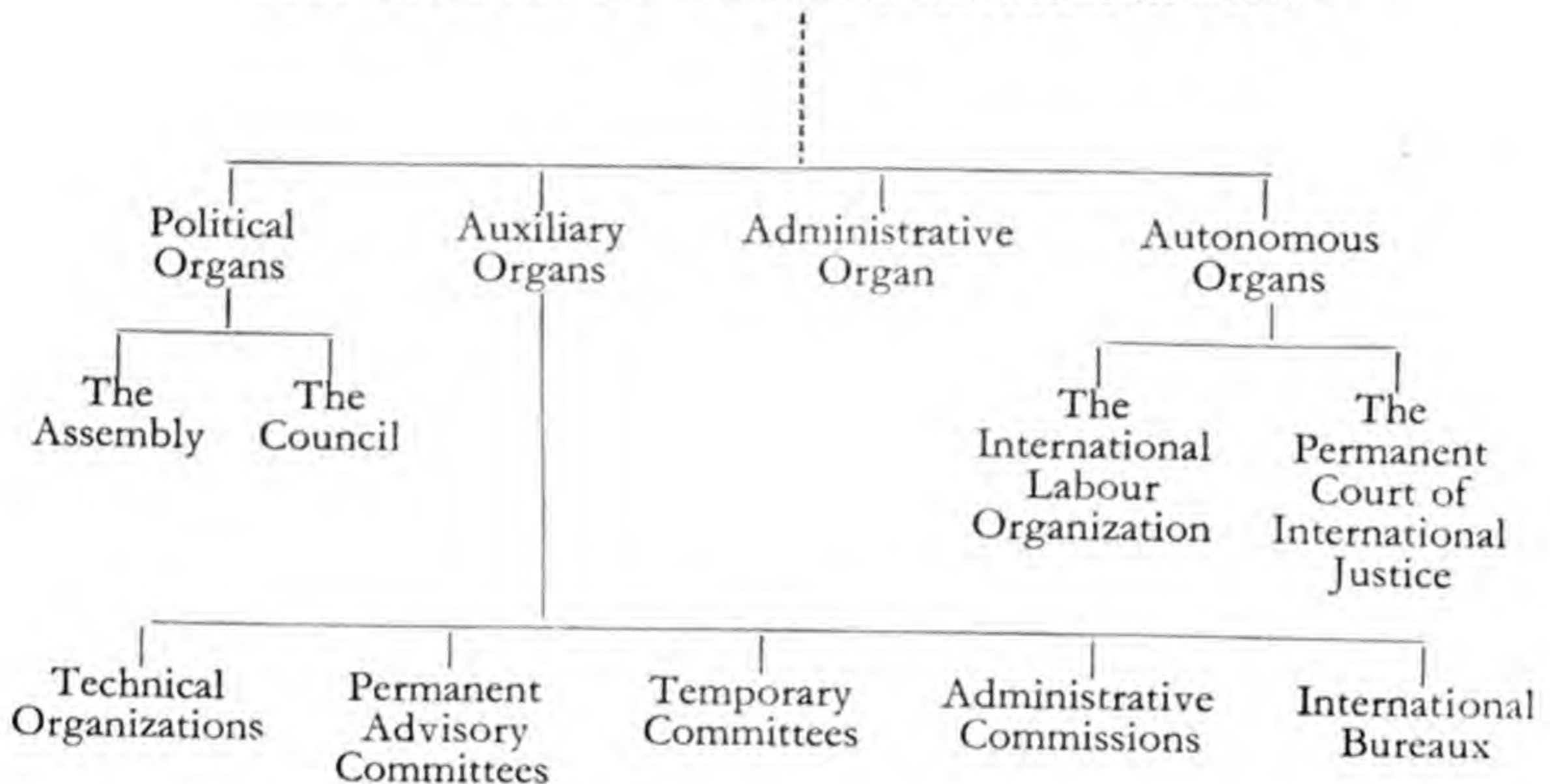
“colonies.” The colonies are partly ruled from London, and partly rule themselves. It depends upon the colony to what extent it is independent of London. For instance, you will find a very great difference between the state of affairs in Ceylon and in one of the smaller West Indian islands. In fact, by looking up the different forms of government throughout the British Empire, you will get a kind of moving picture of the development of democratic government. At one end of the scale, you will find the colonies and dependencies still ruled by a governor sent from London, and in these places the inhabitants may advise the governor and his officials, but they cannot force the Government to obey their orders. The Government takes its orders from the Secretary of State for the Colony in London.

And then at the other end of the scale you come to the Self-Governing Dominions and Great Britain, in which the Government has to obey the orders of a parliament chosen, at any rate in part, by the people. The great importance of the British Empire, from the government point of view, is that it is a kind of laboratory or experimental place in which we are finding out how to make it possible for peoples of different races and languages and religions to work together in a team. And at the back of the whole experiment is the broad idea that in the long run a team will never work well together unless its members are there of their own free will.

Now just a word or two about the problem of International Government. One is not far wrong in saying there is no international government. The nations of the world have what are called “sovereign rights,” which means that they do not admit that any other nation has the right to give them orders. Nevertheless, when the Great War was over, it was felt that something should be done, if possible, to prevent such a disaster occurring again. So the League of Nations was formed. Now, please get into your heads very firmly that the League of

Nations is not a kind of super-government. It is not a world government, and when people blame the League of Nations for doing this or not doing that, they are really talking the most complete nonsense. The League of Nations is nothing more nor less than an office or club of independent governments.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ORGANIZATION *



In fact, the French word for the League is a much better description of it than the English: the French call it the Society of Nations. That is all it is—a society which has rules and regulations, and to which the nations are supposed to pay a subscription. It has an office at Geneva, in which some very hard-working people do a great deal of useful work for all the Governments who are members of the Society. But the League cannot make its members disarm or do any of the other things which the nations have said they feel they ought to do. All that the League people can say is something like this: “If you sovereign states really wish to make your armies and navies

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smaller, we can make the necessary arrangements to carry out your wishes.” The French have been saying since the end of the war that one can never expect to have real peace in the world until there are laws for all the nations which, if broken by any one nation, will cause that nation to be punished, and that the League of Nations should be given armed forces so that it can be a kind of international policeman. This, of course, would be the beginning of a real world government. In other words, there would be a body of men who would be above national governments. But at present that is not the case, and in most parts of the world people do not like the idea of thinking that in certain circumstances their Government might have to take orders from some outside body. For instance, just ask yourself this question. How would you like it if say France, Italy, Brazil, Spain and Greece decided that the British Government was wrong in some dispute between nations. Are you prepared to submit to foreigners giving your country orders? When you have answered that question, remember that, once upon a time, the great nobles in the feudal days often claimed that the King had no right to give them orders, whilst later on a king of England lost his head because he would not admit that Parliament could give him orders. Perhaps one day the nations will come to the conclusion that, if they are to live peaceably together in the world, there must be some body which is in a position to give them orders and to punish them if they disobey these orders.

QUESTIONS. TALK 5 (A)

1. Which European countries have kings or queens?
2. Why and when did the present Mandates System begin?
3. If the Prime Minister asked you to join the Government, what minister would you choose to be? Give reasons.
4. What is the difference between a Crown Colony and a Dominion? Make a list of each.
5. How many new nation-states have come into existence since 1914 (look at a map).



CHAPTER 5 (B)

FROM THE RULE OF ONE MAN TO THAT OF MANY

IT is not a good thing to have to begin one's talk by saying that the title is inaccurate. But that is the case with this one, and, what is more, I am not going to apologise for it. Why not? Because it is short and to the point and does to a certain extent bring out an historical fact which it is the object of this talk to put before you; the historical fact that government in this country since the time of the Anglo-Saxons to the present day has passed from the rule of a tribal king to that of King *plus* Parliament. Where my title is misleading is that you may get the idea that the tribal king was what we call an autocrat, able to do what he liked, how he liked, when he liked. I hope, however, that what I am going to tell you will show that was not so.

The kings of this country before the Norman Conquest were chosen either because they were mighty men of valour, *i.e.* leaders of successful bands of invaders, or because they belonged to a particular family from which the kings had been selected for a considerable time. The King, once chosen, led his people in war, judged their law cases, and if he were a man of outstanding

ability, like King Alfred, with courage and ideas, he naturally would have by far the largest say in the government. But whether weak or strong he always had to be mindful of custom, and also he always had a Council to assist him. This Council before the Conquest was known as the Witan, about which we do not know a very great deal, but we do know this—that it had no relation with Parliament of later times. It was composed pretty well of those whom the King wished, generally people known as thegns and bishops. Its powers were such as to show that it was quite a powerful body, for it could get rid of a bad king, it consented to the making of new laws, and it chose the new King when the old one died, as when it elected Harold just before 1066. But, you see, in any case the great mass of the people had very little say in deciding what we to-day call “policy,” and therefore there was nothing in the way of democracy in those far-off days. There we must leave our tribal kings and let Baron Rollo tell us of the things that have been happening in his time.

Baron Rollo

“You ought to know that I, as a Greater Baron, have the right of going by personal invitation from my Lord the King to what is called the Great Council, where we talk things over with My Lord the King. To this gathering there come also Bishops, Abbots, and Judges, but from the time of Edward I of blessed memory we have been having some additional people. That King followed an example which had been set by Simon de Montfort, and perhaps others, of summoning Knights of the Shire, Burgesses, and Citizens to be present at these meetings of the Great Council, which are now called a Parliament—which means a talking. What is the purpose of this Parliament? Why is it regarded as something new and strange? Well, my Lord the King knows very well that he must have money, not only to carry on the ordinary work of government,

but also to pay for the numerous wars he undertakes against the Scots and the French. He knows, too, that people will pay much more readily if they have representatives of their own present at the time when the decisions are taken as to how much people have to pay. So much so is this true that there are some people who think this Parliament is only a device for collecting taxes. Further, my Lord the King is and always was the dispenser of justice. He now hears the petitions of the Commons of the realm—for such is the collective name given to these newcomers—and very frequently promises to remove grievances in return for taxes. So a kind of bargaining is taking place between the King and his Commons, something like this—‘I will remove grievances, if you will pay taxes.’ The Saints only know where this will lead us to, for it seems to me to put a deal of power in the hands of these Commons.

“At the beginning these Commons only came into the royal presence to hear our decisions, and had no separate meeting-place of their own, but now the monks of Westminster have offered them the use of their chapter-house as a meeting-place. There, after hearing the royal will, they discuss what they are going to say to the King, for it is not seemly that this rabble should chatter in the royal presence.

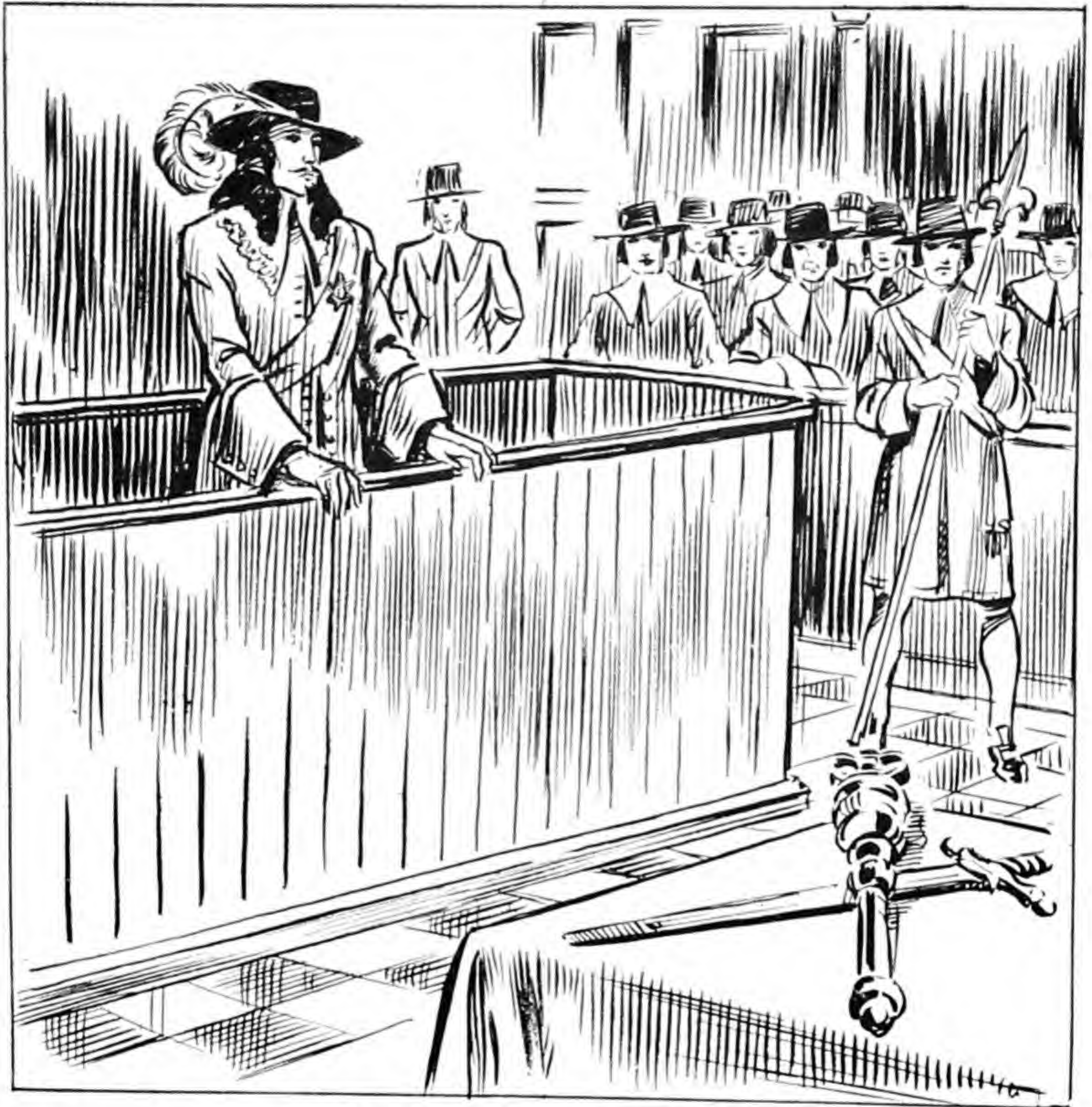
“With regard to the method of summoning these Commoners, they are summoned by the King through the Sheriff of the Shire, who orders those who attend the Shire court to elect two Knights for the Shire, and the burgesses and citizens two of their kind for each burgh and city, and tells them when the King wants them at Westminster. Do not think that these folk like coming all the way to Westminster; there is no competition to become a representative. As far as I can see, these arrangements are going to be permanent, but whether our Parliament will consist of two or three Houses all depends on what happens to the Church, for they meet in their own Assembly and vote their taxes there. But of one thing I am sure, and that is these Com-

moners have come to stay, and that Parliament is going to become a very important institution in our national life."

Mr. Pepys

"I'faith, you were right, Baron Rollo, when you said that Parliament was going to become a very important institution in our national life. You will probably be horrified when I tell you of some of the things it has been doing of late years, and amazed when I tell you of the powers it now exercises. Ever since the opening of this century—the 17th—we have been witnessing a struggle between the King and Parliament to see who should govern the country. The King felt that his wishes ought to be met whether they always agreed with those of Parliament or not. The principal bone of contention between them was that of taxation. You were indeed prophetic, Rollo, when you said that you did not know where this power of granting money would lead. The King tried to levy taxes by what Parliament regarded as illegal means, but, Heaven knows, they kept him short enough of cash. There was a Mr. Hampden who became quite a hero for refusing to pay Ship Money, and Parliament would have it that they only could grant the right to levy taxes. Then there were religious differences; some there were who wanted to overthrow the rule of Bishops, some to maintain that rule. So serious did these differences become and so outraged were the people of the land by the conduct of the King's advisers, Laud and Strafford, that—woe the day!—they must needs take to arms to settle their differences. Worse was to follow. Victorious Parliament, urged on by one Oliver Cromwell, did touch the Lord's Anointed and cruelly executed him in January 1649. After many tribulations, thanks be to God, we have a king again.

"I fear that this has been a somewhat long and burdensome introduction to what I have to say about the powers and organisation of Parliament to-day. We now have two Houses only



TRIAL OF CHARLES I IN 1649

—House of Lords and Commons—you would, of course, be sitting in the House of Lords, Rollo. The clergy have now the vote, and in return for that privilege they no longer vote their taxes in their own assembly.

“Your petitions are now Bills, and when they have been considered by Parliament and consented to by the King they become Acts of Parliament. The House of Commons is a very powerful body now, and consists for the most part of squires and folk

from the countryside, rich merchants, and lawyers. There is no longer any idea of Parliament and King being rival powers—they cannot get on without each other, as Oliver Cromwell found out, although I have heard it whispered that His Majesty finds Parliament rather a nuisance, and would fain be like the French King, Louis XIV, and have no Parliament. But Parliament now gets rid of Ministers it does not like, as indeed they did with My Lord Danby. Taxation is now entirely voted by Parliament.

“Most important of all, there are now growing up two definite parties within our Parliament, which be called Whigs and Tories. The Tories be great champions of the Church of England and of the power of the King, and are to be found in large numbers among the country gentry and squires. The Whigs are more for Parliament and for letting folk worship as they like. Hence it is no wonder that they be strong among those whom we now call Nonconformists—who will not accept the Test Act. And so, Baron Rollo, what had but humble beginnings with you three hundred years ago, has now grown into a very powerful body which has even executed a king!”

Mr. Addleshaw

“Well, that was all very interesting, Mr. Pepys, and now I must finish off the story by drawing attention to one or two important points. There is no doubt in my mind that Parliament nowadays is the all-important governing body of this country, for there is no part of our life at home or abroad in which Parliament does not have the final say. In other words, it can pass laws about anything, but in practice it does not, because it only passes laws to do with those things which the country has given it a mandate to do, that is ordered it to do. You see, Mr. Pepys, a very powerful little committee, called the Cabinet, has grown up since your time, and is formed by the Prime Minister and those from the party with a majority which

the Prime Minister selects for their various abilities. This Cabinet is responsible to the King and to the country for carrying out government according to the wishes of the majority for the time being. The Cabinet decides what shall be discussed and what form the proposed laws shall take, and then the House of Commons discuss them, and then the House of Lords, but that House has not nearly so much power as in your day, Mr. Pepys. A Cabinet stays in office for seven years unless it is defeated before then, in which case a general election comes sooner. Every man—not women—of twenty-one and over, with a few exceptions, votes at these elections. We have had some great struggles in recent years between Gladstone and Disraeli, and they have made us all interested in what goes on in the Houses of Parliament. These two men represented our two main parties—Liberals and Conservatives, but there are one or two other smaller ones—Irish Nationalists, and there is one member of a new party, the Labour Party.

“You would not recognise the new Houses of Parliament, Mr. Pepys, for the old ones were burnt down in 1834, some said as a judgment for passing the First Reform Bill, and the present ones were opened about 1850. The Crown is still head of government, and, as we well know, our good Queen Victoria has a big say through the advice she can give. But the Queen does not have anything like the say Charles II had; it is the people now who have the final say. That is what we mean by calling ourselves a democratic country, and our Parliament is known as the Mother of Parliaments.”

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Why are the following Parliaments specially mentioned in your history books: the Reformation Parliament, the Long Parliament, the Reform Parliament?
2. Why is the English Parliament called the “Mother of Parliaments”? Can you draw a plan of the present House of Commons?
3. Give examples from your history of monarchy, aristocracy, oligarchy, democracy, bureaucracy.



CHAPTER 6 (A)

LOOKING BACK ON THE TALKS

THIS talk is to be a little summing-up of my previous five talks. I hope you will remember that the general idea of these talk-chapters was that I should tell you about the facts of present-day life, and that Mr. Boswell would tell you about the facts of the past. Of course, in five talks it has only been possible for me to take certain groups of facts. You can imagine present-day life as being a wheel in which the facts are the spokes. There are hundreds and hundreds of spokes, but even if some of the spokes were not there at all, the wheel would still be useful after a fashion. One can perhaps imagine that there are four or five important spokes in the wheel, and that during these talks we have discussed those four or five important spokes. Let us just throw our minds back as to what the talks were.

There was Talk No. I (A), "Present-Day Life," and in that talk I reminded you of the tremendous number of different things you needed in your life to-day—things which you called "necessities," things which you felt you had to have. I pointed out to you that many of the things you need come from all over the world, that in order to be comfortable you, as one person, demand that the whole world should provide you with its products, whether those products were *foodstuffs*, such as cocoa, meat, sugar, or *textiles*, such as cotton and wool; or *metals*, such as tin, lead, zinc, copper, aluminium, and I asked you to pay particular attention to Mr. Boswell's first talk, in which he would point out to you how simple the needs of an Englishman were but a few hundred years ago, and then you heard Mr. Boswell and his three friends, Baron Rollo, Mr. Pepys and the Lancashire cotton-spinner, describing how by degrees things which men thought were luxuries began to be looked upon as necessities; and so that brought us to the point when I invited you to consider the question as to *how* all these things which you needed to-day are produced, because it is clear that they do not fall down from the clouds and into men's laps. In finding out the answer to this question we discovered that we were talking about present-day work, and we went up in an aeroplane and looked down upon Great Britain in order to watch the people of this country at work, and we noticed that out of every hundred people in this country fifty-three of them were making and producing things, growing foodstuffs, digging out coal, making cloths into clothes, building houses, making newspapers and so on. We also noticed that out of each hundred, thirteen were buying and selling goods; that twelve out of each hundred were working at waiting upon other people or in preparing food and drink—we called that work Personal Service—and that seven out of each hundred were carrying goods backwards and forwards or carrying messages; postmen and railway workers were amongst these

seven. Then we found that six out of every hundred were Government officials, and that the remaining nine people were scattered amongst professions, fighting services, gas, water, electricity, amusements and odds and ends.

Pause for breath and reflection if necessary.

Well, now, I must come on to the next talk, which dealt with the question of how things which everyone needs and which are made by so very many different people are exchanged between men, and that brought us on to trade—trade inside this country and trade between the people of this country and those living in other countries. In this talk on trade I begged you to make up your minds to understand what is meant by the expression “Invisible Exports,” which are the services, such as shipping service, and the money we receive from the savings we have lent abroad. I pointed out to you that unless you can understand what these invisible exports are, you will not understand why it is that when one adds up the value of the solid goods which come into this country the figure is always greater than the value of the solid goods which leave our shores.

Then we come to the talk on Money, and that, as I told you at the time, was a very difficult one. Money, I explained to you, was a trick or invention to make trade easier, and I told you what a cheque was, and also said a word or two about foreign exchanges, and how at the present time we do not know from day to day how many dollars or francs or marks go to the £, and then we found ourselves faced with the question: “How are all these activities we have been talking about organised?” They cannot be left to work themselves out just anyhow; otherwise there would be a huge muddle. There must be some rules; and all of a sudden we discovered that we were talking about government, and I told you something about the facts of govern-



AN "INVISIBLE EXPORT"—THE SHIPPING SERVICE

ment to-day, and what some of the Government departments are and what they do, and now we come to a final message. Let me say that when you look back on all the facts which I have told you about in the talks, I want you to try to fit them together like the pieces of a jigsaw puzzle. Do not think of work and trade and government as being separate things, think of them as being parts of one thing, spokes of a wheel, all of which are necessary to form the whole wheel.

In fact, my advice to you is to make a point of thinking of life as a whole—that word is spelt **W H O L E**. One of the advantages of studying history is that in looking backwards one can see how different events fit together, and the why and the wherefore of many happenings whose meaning was not clear to the man who lived at those times. The difficult job in everyday life is to see

the wood for the trees; to sort out the things which matter from those which do not. It is a difficult job, but it is one which every boy and girl in this country ought to try to do. As soon as you are twenty-one you will have a vote. You will have to help choose someone who will represent your views in Parliament. In these days Parliament has a very great say in the matter of how people are to live, under what conditions they are to work, the way in which trade is to be carried on, and all those things which you have been reading about in these talk-chapters. If you want to be able to choose a member of Parliament to represent your views in all these important things, you must first of all have some views, mustn't you? Nor is it only at election time that your views are important. All the time the Government is working it keeps an ear cocked for the murmurs of a thing called "Public Opinion." If it gathers from the newspapers, or from speeches, or from other sources that a proposed law is very unpopular with most of the people in this country, it usually takes steps to alter the law to satisfy public opinion. Public opinion is simply the expression of the views of the greater part of the people of the country. When you are grown up, your views will go towards making public opinion—only a very small part, it is true—but still, every little counts. How are you to form an opinion about such things as the right way to run the trade of the country, the right way to govern the country, and so on? Well, you have got to KNOW, you have got to THINK and you have got to JUDGE. You must listen to older and wiser people talking, you must read as much as you can—that is how to get knowledge; then you must think things out in your own head and express them in your own words. Lastly, you must try to be fair; always listen to both sides of the question, for there is always more than one side to be considered in any question; then weigh up the arguments for and against and decide which side you think is right.

Finally, a motto for yourselves and your teachers :—

“ Everything is understandable providing it is intelligently explained.”

QUESTIONS. TALK 6 (A)

1. A man from the Moon has asked you to write him a letter answering this question :
What kind of a life do you Earth men live at the present time ? Have a shot at sending him a reply.
2. In what ways can the Government of a country alter the manner in which
 - (a) the life,
 - (b) the work,
 - (c) the trade,
 - (d) the moneyof that country is carried on ?
3. What do you think is meant by the words “ Politics ” and “ Economics ” ?
After thinking about questions (2) above, would you consider that these two subjects could be separated from one another ?



CHAPTER 6 (B)

LOOKING BACK ON THE TALKS

WELL, here we are at the end of the talks, during which I have covered a great deal of ground of one sort and another. The moment has now come to take stock and to collect some general ideas about what has been happening in the world since Baron Rollo's time. First of all I want to say something about History itself. I expect there are some of you who like History, and some who do not. Those of you who do not—I wonder why? Is it because all those dates, names and so forth do not mean anything to you, and you cannot see any purpose to them? If that is so, let me try and explain what History really should mean to us, and why I hope these talks of ours have perhaps helped to put some meaning into what you have been learning in your books. The word "History," as you probably know, means a story, and so it is. It is the most interesting story of all, because it has no beginning and no ending. It is the story of how we all came to be what we are—which tells us how our system of government has grown up, why we have so many overseas possessions; it tells us of the growth of our various

social customs, how our agriculture has developed, and how and when our main industries have sprung up. It is a story of great difficulty to tell, because there are gaps in it at times, but it is nevertheless a continuous story, and what is happening to-day is but part of the story, and can really be only understood by going back. There are some who think we ought to begin the story to-day and work back. Well, we hope that by our method of tracing History backwards we have shown you some of the links in this most fascinating story.

Now I think that the best way to bring out some of the main points in this story is to get Baron Rollo to ask things about things which he particularly notices, and then I will answer him.

Baron Rollo : Well, the first thing that strikes me very forcibly is the extraordinarily large number of people that there are in these islands. I do not suppose that before the Black Death there were more than four million odd people in England and Wales, and yet you tell me that to-day there are about 36 millions. How do you account for the increase ?

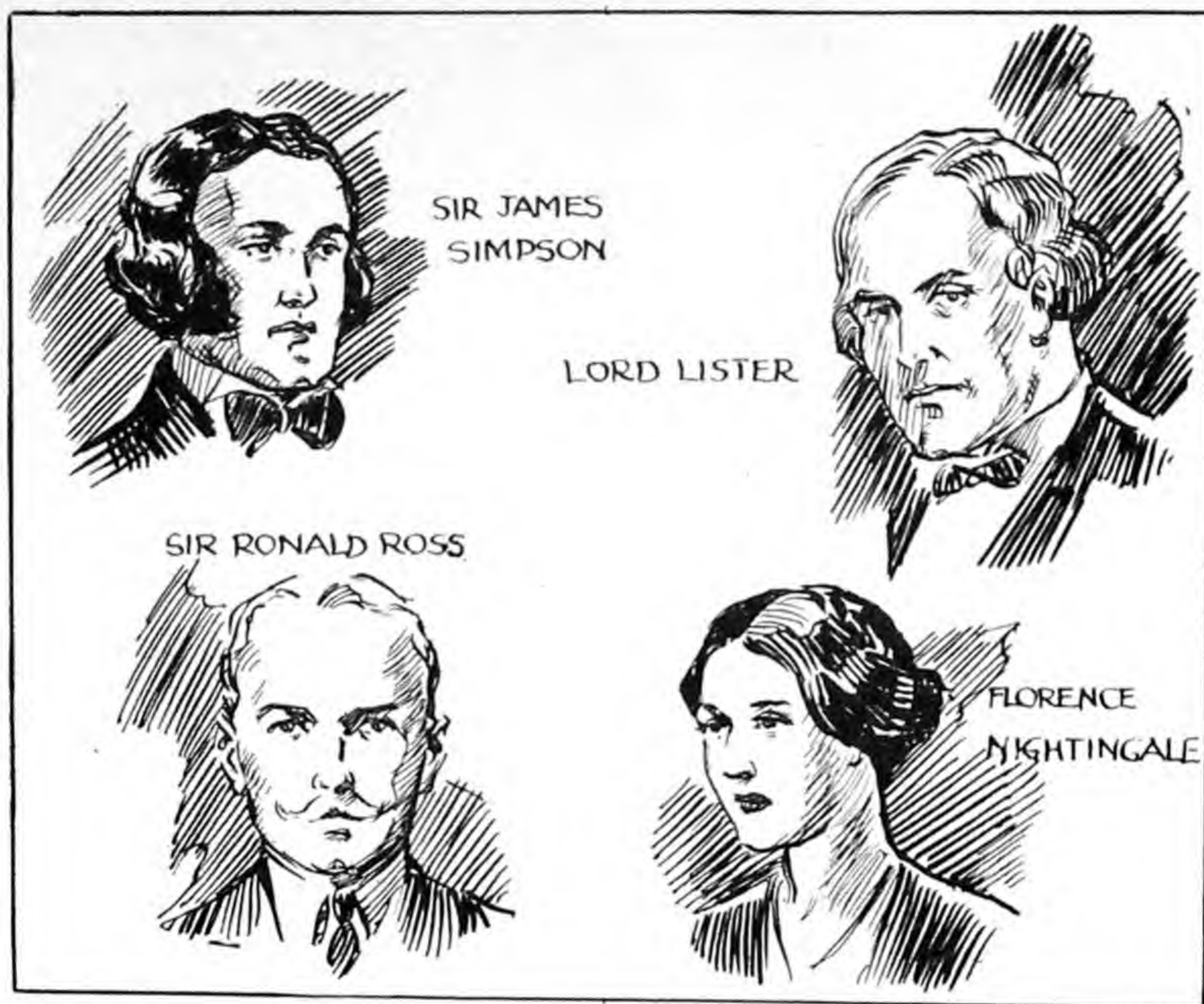
Mr. Boswell : Now you have asked a very sensible question, and, what is more, I can answer it. The number of people that a country can maintain depends to a large extent on the available foodstuffs. When you can draw on the whole world for supplies instead of your own immediate area, as in your time, Rollo, it is possible to sustain a very large population indeed. But it is not only the increased supplies of foodstuffs that accounts for the increase. Now, when did the population begin to increase ? Not till the end of the 18th century. And it was at that time that certain things happened which help to explain why. It was not that more people were born so much as that less people died, especially little babies. Now, this saving of life was due to some great medical discoveries, to the building of hospitals, better drainage, and to the cheaper clothes, which enabled a man to change his clothes more often. For the con-



A MODERN HOSPITAL WARD

nection with dirt and disease was being found out. Further, although we have 'flu, we do not have those great plagues which used to sweep away thousands of lives every year in your time and also that of Mr. Pepys'. And I should just like to tell you something about one or two of these medical discoveries. Here we must first turn to Scotland, where Edinburgh took the lead in the new medical practice which was to revolutionise our ideas on those matters. Smallpox was a great scourge until Dr. Jenner of Berkeley, Gloucester, discovered vaccination in 1798. In 1849 Sir James Simpson had discovered the use of chloroform, and in 1867 Dr. Joseph Lister introduced antiseptics, which have done so much to kill germs and make operations safer.

Then better food and fresher food have all played their part in making healthier people. This, coupled with the improvement in drainage and sanitation, have removed the dangers of



FOUR GREAT NAMES IN THE STORY OF MEDICAL PROGRESS

cholera, another of the scourges which used to kill off so many people.

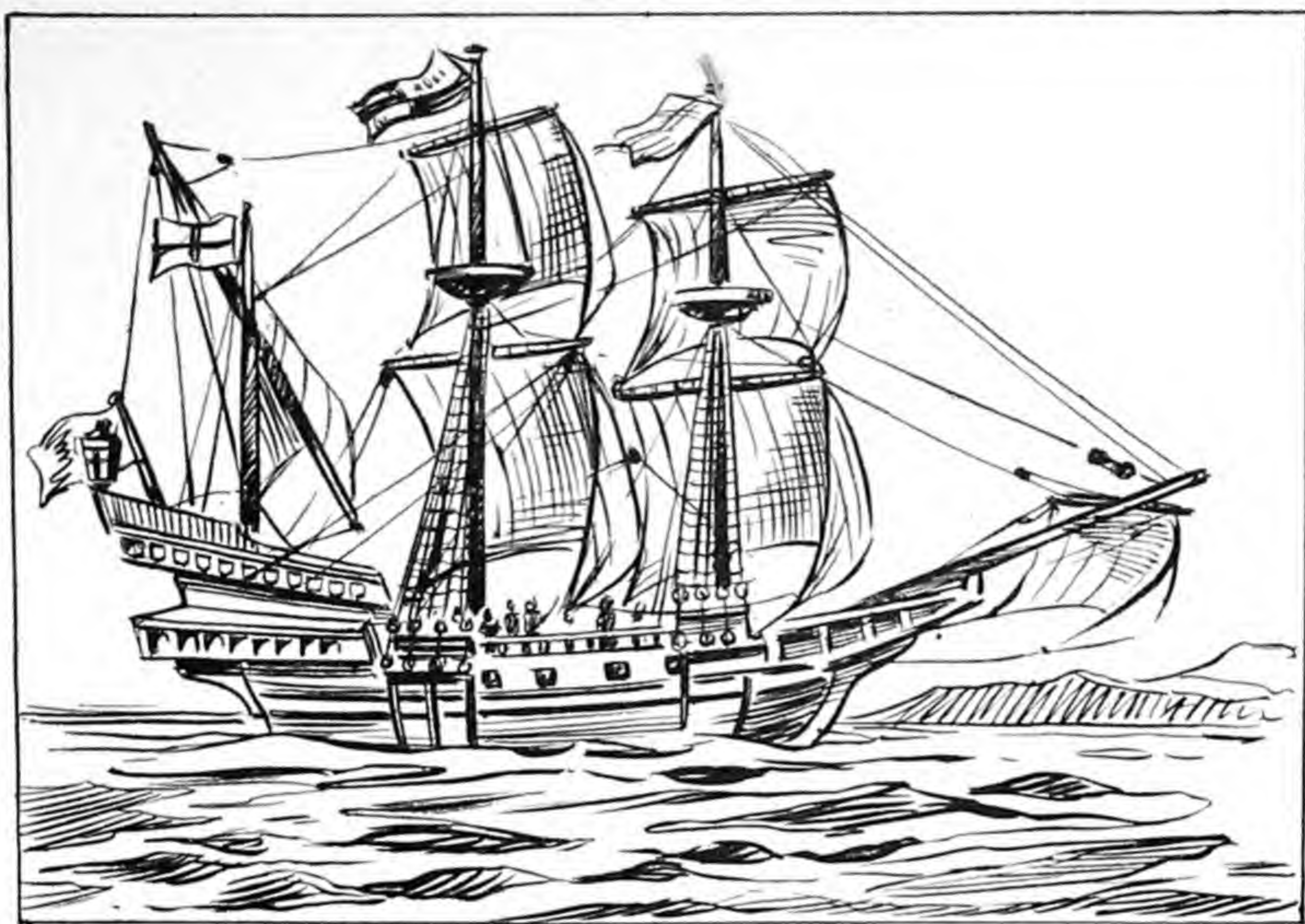
Baron Rollo : Very interesting, Mr. Boswell, and I only wish that we had known all that at the time of the Black Death. Now, the next question I want to ask you is this. You may remember that in our second talk I said that I had a town on my estate—quite a small place which had won certain privileges from me. Now I see hundreds of towns of considerable size, and one or two absolute giants, such as London, Manchester, Birmingham. Why all this collecting of people into towns when there is still crowds of room in the country where I am sure it must be healthier?

Mr. Boswell : In talk three I explained how Great Britain had become a manufacturing country, and it is this urbanisation of our population, as we call it, which is the price we have to pay for relying on industry and commerce to pay for our food from abroad, which we no longer grow. But now, thanks to quick communication, it is possible for people to live some way away from their business in the country.

Baron Rollo : In my time, Mr. Boswell, the country was covered with great forests and woods, with undrained marshes and miserable roads, and not many bridges. Now I see but few of these forests left; what were marshlands now are great wheat-growing areas, magnificent roads run all over the country, canals meandering here and there, and things which I understand are called railways.

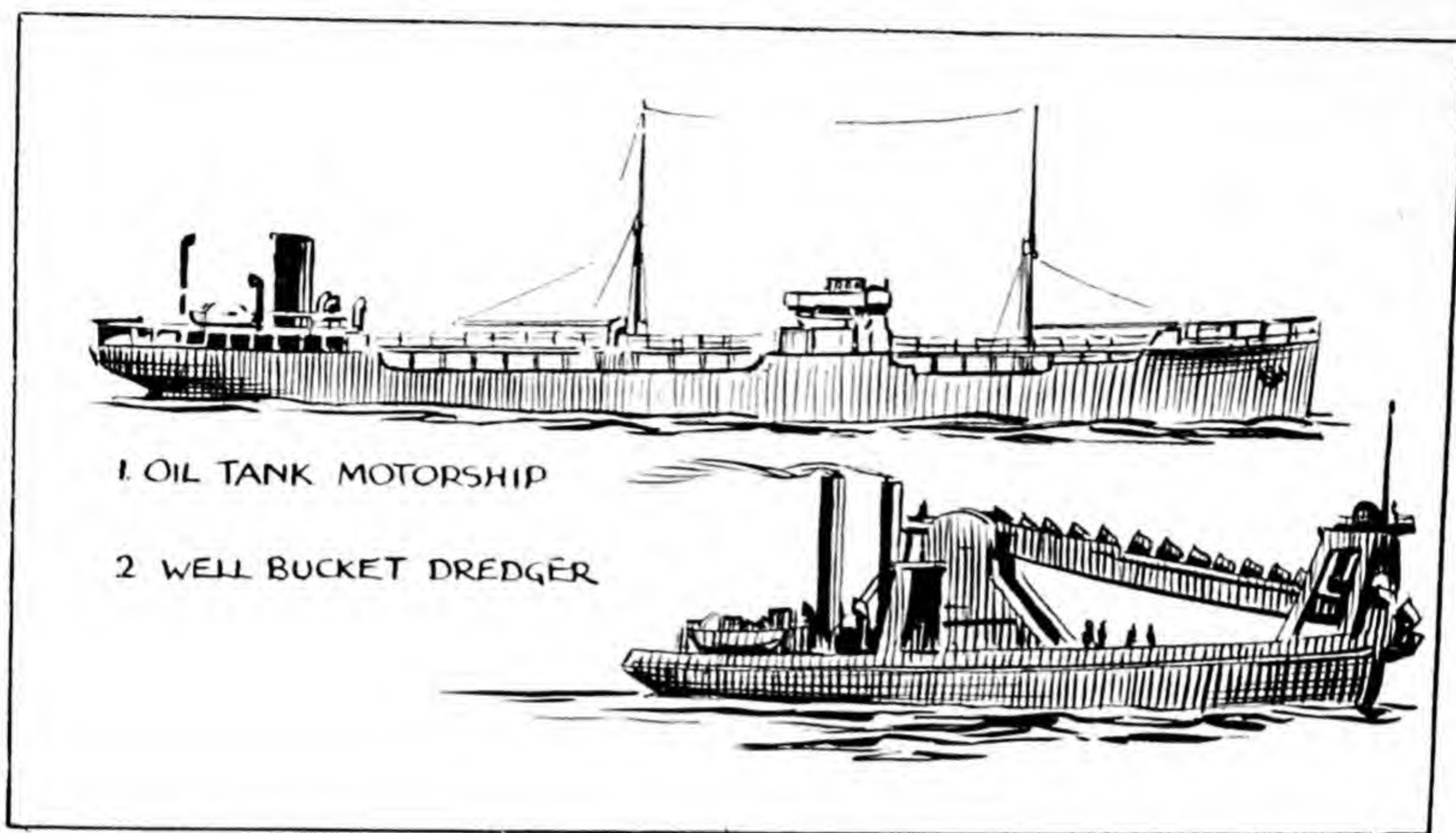
Mr. Boswell : You know probably a great deal better than we do that life is a struggle between man and the forces of nature; the struggle is a little less one-sided to-day than it was in your time. Why? Because we have found out a great deal more about these forces of nature and how to use them for our benefit. Take those forests of which you spoke. Undoubtedly some of them have disappeared as the result of the trees being cut down through the years for timber for building ships, smelting iron, and building houses. Some are still left, which you will remember as Ashdown and Epping Forest. But nowadays it is possible for us to clear great areas of forest and cut down trees and saw them up in saw-mills driven by machinery. This has helped to clear many foreign countries and many of our Colonies and Dominions. We have found out how to drain these marshes, so that what were useless stretches of land in your time are now very fertile areas like the Fenlands, or, to take another example, the country in Holland round the Zuyder Zee.

We still use our rivers for transporting things as you did, but you will be surprised when you see which ones they are. You



THE GOLDEN HIND—THE SHIP IN WHICH DRAKE SAILED ROUND THE WORLD

used the Trent, the Ouse, the Dee, and the Severn, and of course the Thames. Now the Clyde, the Mersey, the Bristol Avon, the Tyne, the Humber, and still the Thames, are among our greatest rivers for carrying goods. Why? Because we have found out how to make steel and iron ships which are worked by steam or oil, and because we have been able to deepen rivers, to build great harbours, and docks to house the large steamers which go all over the world. And so towns like Liverpool, Hull, Manchester, Glasgow, and Cardiff take the place of your King's Lynn, Chester, Boston, and Whitehaven. But what I am trying to get into your head, Rollo, is that by the discoveries and inventions of men since your day, we have been able to tame those wild forces of nature which you did not understand, and it would be difficult to imagine how we should get on without them.



STRANGE SHIPS USED IN COMMERCE TO-DAY

Baron Rollo : I cannot help thinking how funny it would have been if Edward III had invaded France in steamers, and had brought all his soldiers to the coast by train, and the French King had had none of these things. But I must not waste time in idle fancies. I have one more question I would very much like to ask you, Mr. Boswell. I noticed that you had a map of the world in front of you; I never saw one before. I see that the earth is round, I always thought it was flat, and that there was an end to it. Further, I see all sorts of places marked on it of which I have never heard. Where and how have they all come?

Mr. Boswell : About a hundred years after your time, Spanish and Portuguese explorers began sailing south from Spain round Africa and east towards America. Since the end of the 15th century this business of nosing out all parts of the earth's surface has gone on, and many are the names of fearless and enterprising explorers and travellers on the roll of those who have laid bare

the world. Nowadays there are but few places left which man has not seen or visited. Thanks to the aeroplane, we are getting to know more and more about the unassailable parts of the earth like Mount Everest. All these new lands have given fresh wants to men, and there have been many bitter struggles to control them. For to-day machines have terrific appetites, which can only be satisfied by having inexhaustible supplies of raw materials with which to feed them.

This business of the earth being round was, of course, found out for a fact by those who first circumnavigated the world in 1519-21, and the leader of that band of men was Magellan, a Portuguese in the pay of Spain; he was unfortunately killed in the East Indies, but the rest of the party returned to Spain. That discovery upset people's ideas very much, and made them realise that Columbus had made a big mistake in calling the West Indies as such. Well, here we must stop. I hope you have learned that the world is never standing still. Man is a restless being, always seeking fresh wants and the means of satisfying them, and history is but the story of his endeavours in every branch of his activities. It is not, then, perhaps such an uninteresting or inhuman subject as you may have thought it to be.

SUGGESTION FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Find out in any way you can when the following came to your town or village, or when they are expected : (i) railway, (ii) electric telegraph, (iii) tram, (iv) motor-bus, (v) water drainage, (vi) hospital, (vii) cinema, (viii) school, (ix) garage, (x) village hall, (xi) gas, (xii) electric light.



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